

SOCIAL AND PROFESSIONAL FOUNDATIONS OF  
TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE:

A Comparative Study of the Politics of  
Pre-primary and Primary Teacher Educa-  
tion with Special Reference to the 1982  
Law.

by

LALOUMI-VIDALI EVAGELIA

B.Sc.(Econ.), M.A., Dip.of H.E.,  
Cert.Ed., Post-Grad. Cert. Ed.

Thesis submitted to the University of London  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Institute of Education, University of London,  
Department of International and Comparative  
Education

March 1988



## CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS...	...
ABSTRACT	1
CHAPTER I: THE PROBLEM AND METHCDOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO IT..	3
1.1 Introduction.	3
1.2 The Nature of the Problem	6
1.3 Some Methodological Considerations of the Problem Analysis...	16
1.3.1 Basic Assumptions of the Problem-Solving Approach	16
1.3.2 Theory of Social Change..	18
1.3.3 The Problem in Methodological Perspective..	21
1.4 The Procedure used in the Study	24
CHAPTER II: PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE..	30
SECTION I: THE TEACHER-MODEL IN ANCIENT AND MODERN GREECE	30
2.1.1 Teacher and Ancient Greece	31
2.1.2 Teacher and Modern Greece	38
SECTION II: THE INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE	44
2.2.1 The European Model of Teacher Education	45
2.2.2 Historical Perspectives on Teacher Education in Greece	48
2.2.2.1 Teacher Education in the 19th Century	48
2.2.2.2 Teacher Education in the 20th Century	54
(a) The Educational Reforms of 1913 and 1917	54
(b) The Educational Reform of 1929...	57
(c) The Period 1932-1940	58
2.2.3 Social Perspectives on Teacher Education in Greece	62
2.2.3.1 The Period 1944-1960	63
2.2.3.2 The Period 1960-1985	65
(a) Pressures for Change.	65
(1a)The Expansion of Higher Education	65
(2a)The Demand for Teachers	70
(3a)The Application of New Knowledge-Content Revision..	71
(4a)The Change of Role in the Teaching Profession	73
(5a)The Impact of Research in Teacher Education	75
(b) Policy Solutions	78
(1b)The Educational Reform of 1964...	78
(2b)The Educational Reform of 1976...	81
(3b)The Educational Reform of the Period 1981-1985	82

	<u>Page</u>
CHAPTER III: THE CONTEXT OF THE 1982 LAW IN GREECE ...	94
SECTION I: TEACHING AS A PROFESSION ... ..	94
3.1.1 The Demand for Professionalisation ...	94
3.1.2 The Model of Teaching as a Profession ...	98
3.1.3 The Implications of the Criteria of the Teaching Profession for the Education and the Proposals for Change in Greece ...	104
3.1.4 Social Barriers to Professional Status of the Teaching Profession... ..	109
SECTION II: GENERAL TAXONOMY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION... ..	117
3.2.1 Admission of Students.. ...	118
3.2.2 Length of Teacher Education Courses ...	122
3.2.3 The Content of Teacher Education Programmes	123
3.2.3.1 Content Selection ... ..	124
3.2.3.2 Content Organisation... ..	128
3.2.3.3 Content Evaluation ... ..	132
3.2.4 Teacher Certification.. ...	132
3.2.5 Control of Teacher Education. ... ..	134
CHAPTER IV: SPECIFIC ISSUES OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE ... ..	145
SECTION I: SPECIFIC ISSUES OF PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY EDUCATION BEFORE THE REFORM: THE CASE OF TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES ... ..	145
4.1.1 Type of Institutions... ..	145
4.1.2 Admission of Students to Teacher Training Colleges... ..	147
4.1.3 Length of Courses in Teacher Training Colleges... ..	152
4.1.4 Content of Studies in Teacher Training Colleges... ..	154
4.1.4 (a) Assessment of Content in Teacher Training Colleges Related to the Issues of Selection, Organisation and Evaluation.. ...	154
4.1.5 Examination and Certification Procedures in Teacher Training Colleges. ... ..	158
4.1.6 The Staff of Teacher Training Colleges...	160
4.1.7 Conclusions ... ..	161
SECTION II: SPECIFIC ISSUES OF PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION AFTER THE REFORM: THE CASE OF UNIVERSITY PEDAGOGICAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION ... ..	164
4.2.1 Introduction ... ..	164
4.2.2 The Characteristics of Greek Universities	
4.2.3 The University Pedagogical Departments for the Education of Pre-Primary and Primary School Teachers.. ...	174
4.2.4 Admission of Students to the Pedagogical Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers.. .	176
4.2.5 The Length of Courses in the University Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers.. ...	179

		<u>Page</u>
4.2.6	The Content of Studies in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers	180
4.2.7	Examination and Certification Requirements for the Graduates of the University Pedagogical Departments of the Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers	186
CHAPTER V:	ANALYSIS OF THE POLICY MAKING IN EDUCATION: THE MODEL OF FORMAL ORGANISATION AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF GREEK ORGANISATIONS RELEVANT TO TEACHER EDUCATION ...	195
5.1	Types of Administration: Centralisation-Decentralisation and Organisation.. ...	196
5.2	The Model of Formal Organisation .. ...	200
5.2.1	Basic Assumptions of Talcott Parsons' Analysis of Formal Organisation ... ..	202
5.2.2	Parsons' Model of Formal Organisation ... ..	205
5.2.3	Vertical Relationships Between the Three Levels of the Organisation... ..	206
5.2.4	Lateral Relationships between the Three Levels of the Organisation... ..	207
5.3	A Further Elaboration of Formal Organisation in Comparative Studies ... ..	211
5.4	Application of a Formal Organisation Model in the Problem Approach ... ..	213
5.5	Formal Organisation and Arenas of Political Debate ... ..	214
5.6	Processes of Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation ... ..	217
5.7	Identification of Greek Educationally Relevant Organisations ... ..	221
5.7.1	The State ... ..	221
5.7.2	Political Parties ... ..	225
5.7.3	Universities ... ..	232
5.7.4	The Federation of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers (DOE- <u>Didaskaliki Omospondia Ellados</u> ).. ...	236
5.7.5	Students' Organisations ... ..	238
CHAPTER VI:	THE POWER OF GREEK ORGANISATIONS RELEVANT TO PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN POLICY-MAKING ... ..	248
6.1	Power and Organisation ... ..	249
6.2	Power Structure and Decision-Making in the Greek Educationally Relevant Organisations	260
6.2.1	The Power of the State Organisation ... ..	260
6.2.2	Political Parties and Their Power ... ..	265
6.2.3	The Power of Universities ... ..	267
6.2.4	<u>Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas</u> - DOE - The Federation of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers and its Power ... ..	277
6.2.5	The Power of Students' Organisations ... ..	280



	<u>Page</u>
CHAPTER VII: THE POLITICS OF TEACHER EDUCATION ...	289
7.1 The Genesis of the Policy-Debates before the Reform ... ..	289
7.2 The Period after 1981, The Policy Change	299
7.3 Policy Formulation and Adoption - Debates in the Parliament on the Reform ... ..	301
7.4 The Implementation of the New Policy for the Education of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers Debates after the Reform	311
7.4.1 The Arena of Debate: Control and Content of Teacher Education... ..	320
7.4.2 The Investigation of Programme of Studies in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education ... ..	333
7.4.2(a) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education of the University of Athens ... ..	333
7.4.2(b) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education in the University of Patras ... ..	336
7.4.2(c) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education in the University of Thessaloniki ... ..	339
7.4.3 Policy Diversion and Implementation ...	343
CHAPTER VIII: CONCLUSIONS ... ..	357
APPENDICES ... ..	366
BIBLIOGRAPHY ... ..	389

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Martin McLean, who guided, assisted and encouraged me all the way through the preparation of this thesis.

I wish also to thank the members of staff in the Main Library and the Library of the Institute of Education University of London who have helped me to obtain many necessary references for my study.

In addition, I would like to thank Ms. Dorothy Vernon for her patience in typing this study and Ms. Dorothea Baker for her assistance in the literary presentation.

Most of all, I wish to thank my parents who took care of my baby son many times thus helping me to continue my study with undivided attention, and especially my husband, Thanassi, for his patience and encouragement during the period of my study, and to him I dedicate this work.

E.L. Vidali

## ABSTRACT

In the course of the last fifty years the under-development of preservice education for pre-primary and primary school teachers in Greece directly influenced their appropriate professional preparation.

Demand for change found expression in the Law 1268/82 about the structure and functioning of Higher Institutions in the country, which introduced new University Pedagogical Departments for the education of teachers for young children. The thesis investigates the difficulties and the problems associated with the successful implementation of the policy change.

Thus, Chapter I identifies the nature of the problem to be studied, formulates a hypothesis to explain it and adopts a methodological approach to facilitate the enquiry.

Chapter II investigates the institutional patterns of development of pre-primary and primary teacher education in Greece and the problems associated with the various political, economic, social and educational changes.

Chapter III establishes an institutional model of the teaching profession and a general taxonomy of the specific issues of teacher preparation on the basis of which the outcomes of the new policy will be examined.

Chapter IV deals with the study of the specific issues before and after the reform and analyses them against the established classificatory scheme.

It is on the basis of these issues that the most important participants of the reform are identified in Chapter V.

This kind of study draws attention to the conceptual framework of formal organisation and the mechanisms of control

and administration through decision making processes.

In Chapter VI the concept of power is introduced in order to explicate the effectiveness of the operation of these organisations and the distribution of power in the decision making process of the Greek organisations during the policy formulation, adoption and implementation is analysed.

Finally, in Chapter VII, the actual contribution of teacher education agents is tested against the events related to the policy change and the politics of the reform at the level of the implementation is analysed against the ideal professional requirements of teaching. The outcomes are explained and the present condition of teacher education is evaluated in order to provide fruitful suggestions for successful future policies in Chapter VIII.

## Chapter I

### THE PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO IT

#### 1.1 Introduction

It is widely recognised that the power of an educational system depends largely upon the quality of its teachers. Despite this view it is surprising that systematic discussion was given to their appropriate professional preparation relatively late in the evolution of most educational systems (1).

In the last forty years the arrangements for the education and training of teachers have been questioned in many countries of the world in the light of the changing socio-economic and political conditions that have taken place in society. At one level the process of industrialisation, the trend towards urbanisation, the increasing complexity of the division of labour and increased occupational and social mobility have profoundly affected the nature of knowledge, attitudes and skills acquired in schools, their functions and the role of the teacher to prepare children for their future life.

Furthermore, the growing demands for democratisation and equality of educational opportunity have effectively contributed to the universalisation of primary education, the restructuring of secondary education and have dominated debates about the expansion of higher education.

In Greece particularly, the industrial expansion, urbanisation, the continued modernisation of transport and agriculture, and the exploitation of the country's natural resources, the political demands for democratisation, all have been significant contributory forces for the development of national education.

Many of these forces have been or are being influential in the re-appraisal and change of the educational system in the

way in which the curricula is modified to respond to the "knowledge explosion", the courses are organised to meet the rapidly changing needs of the "technological society", teaching methods are revised in the light of the educational and psychological research evidence and schools are organised in relation to the personal and social development of the pupils as well as the community needs. But can all these proposed or implemented innovations meet the urgency of the demands that present day society is making without the effectiveness and expertise of the teaching personnel?

The growing dissatisfaction around the world with teacher education policies revealed on the one hand how inadequate was the teaching profession to meet the new requirements in terms of both personal education and professional preparation and on the other hand how important were new teacher education programmes in the general drive for social and educational reform.

Proposals to restructure the system of teacher education were not the same everywhere because they were in part determined by the relationships which exist within any country between education and other social, political, religious, economic institutions and between the institutions of teacher training and other parts of the education system (2).

The reform movement in the majority of cases is faced with theoretical and practical problems. Theoretical problems are associated with fundamental assumptions about the concept of the ideal teacher and his function in society while practical problems arise from organisational aspects of teacher education and methods of training (3).

Greece is among the countries which already legislated (1982) for the preparation of pre-primary and primary school

teachers' new departments within the university sector. Pre-primary and primary school teachers before 1982 received two years pre-service education to non-university level institutions while secondary school teachers used to be prepared in university courses. Despite the teachers' long struggle for truly comprehensive reform and despite numerous public reports by academics, professionals, politicians and students who had respectively proposed a restructuring of teacher education, the major thrust of the reforms before 1982 have been mainly to bring changes only in the primary and secondary schools and not in teacher education.

The demands for reform have included: (4)

- (a) The integration of all initial preparation of teachers and in-service training within the university sector.
- (b) Pre-primary and primary school teachers' desire for professional preparation including the disciplines basic to study of education and more pedagogical courses, in order to gain greater professional status.

In fact, the 1982 Law, was a legislative attempt to modernise and improve educational standards and to promote the democratisation of Greek universities. In particular, it was an attempt to offer solutions to the problem of professional training of teachers which had been caused on the one side by the influence of the dual European model of teacher education and on the other side by the demands for "structural and philosophical" stability(5), represented by those who used to rule the country and were in favour of the classical Greek tradition and the old system of teacher education.

This dual policy had a profound effect not only upon the quality of pre-service courses in terms of kinds of institutions, length of courses, curriculum and content, formulation and control

of training policies, methods of teaching and the recruitment of students but also upon the conditions of service, social and professional status of teachers, so much so that they regarded themselves as two different professions. This distinction is still reflected in their names. In the Greek language a word like "teacher" applies only to teachers in pre-primary and primary schools. Teachers for secondary level are viewed as subject specialists and named "professors".

The general idea in the reform was to bring all teachers under the university sector, establishing gradually a kind of comprehensive teacher training and reducing the dichotomy of the teaching profession. The increasing desirability for unification of the teaching profession had a rather political character and seemed to be based on the belief that the distinction reflected and reinforced social inequalities in terms of the dualistic system of teacher training level.

## 1.2 The Nature of the Problem

The awareness that a thorough reform was needed of the education of teachers of young children has been increased since the fall of the dictatorship (July 1974) and the restoration of democracy (November 1975). But until 1981 the main responses to the demand for policy-change were:

- (a) the unwillingness of the universities to respond to the new requirements for expansion and to meet the new range of social and educational objectives in terms of democratisation of education, equality of opportunity and relevant pedagogic knowledge for intending teachers and
- (b) the reluctance of the "New Democracy" party which was in power from November 1974 until November 1981 - to



propose such a radical reform.

During this period the proposed "change" was only the subject of unending discussions and never an operational governmental project.

An overview of the political changes in Greece during the post-war period would provide the necessary historical background and conceptual framework against which the problem can be better identified, analysed and assessed.

Since the end of the Second World War and the following civil war between the pro-western government and the communists, the political life started in Greece by the early fifties, when the monarchy was re-established by the 1952 Constitution.

At the parliamentary level after a period of internal political instability (1950-1956), the rightwing party appeared under the name Ethniki Rizospastiki Enosis - ERE (National Radical Union) and took office for seven years (1956-1963). Some of the main educationally-related events of the period were

- (a) the OECD report on Greece, which was part of the Mediterranean Regional Project,
- (b) a series of reports and education laws on technical and vocational education and
- (c) the establishment in 1961 of the Centre of Planning and Economic Research.

Although some changes took place, in general, the structure of the educational system remained the same as the pre-war period - six years compulsory primary education, six years Gymnasium, higher and highest institutions at the level of tertiary education. Teacher Training Colleges belonged to the higher sector under the direct control of the state in terms of student admission, curricula and content, two

years of courses and certification procedures.

Between February 1964 and July 1965 the second major political party named Enosis Kentrou - E.K. (Center Union), composed by the pre-war liberals, took office. It soon displayed the tensions for important comprehensive reforms in line with the principles of democratisation. Among them were policies for nine years (compulsory education, free education at all levels, reorganisation of general education) in six years primary education, three years Gymnasium (lower secondary education) and three years Lyceum (upper secondary education), new entrance examination system to tertiary level institutions, curriculum revision and extension of teachers preparatory course from 2 to 3 years in Teacher Training Colleges.

But the intervention of the monarch in the political life and the conflict between the King and his Ministers led again to the political instability (1965-1967) which inhibited the implementation of the above reforms (except the provision of free education at all levels) and opened the door to the military junta (1967-1974).

The Dictatorship abolished all the innovative attempts and changed the educational system in line with the system of the 1956-1963 period.

Since the collapse of the Dictatorship and the establishment of the Greek Democratic Republic (1974), the right wing party took office under the name New Democracy (1974-1981). The Government's intentions had been to reorganise the whole state of education including: 9 years compulsory education, 6 years primary school, 3 years gymnasium (lower secondary school), 3 years Lyceum (upper secondary school), modernisation of technical and vocational education, curriculum development, research, one

year in-service training for pre-primary and primary school teachers and new entrance examinations to the tertiary level institutions. In reference to the pre-service education of all pre-primary and primary school teachers the system did not witness any important change, except in the curriculum content revision taught. In this way, just before the political elections of 1981, Teacher Training Colleges remained part of the higher level institutions - not of university rank - students admitted after the national entrance examinations received two years training on subjects well defined by the Ministry of Education which was also responsible for the certification procedures.

After the elections of 1981 the Panellinio Socialistiko Kinema - PASOK - (Panhellinic Socialist Movement) which represented the socialist left wing party, came to power. The main objective of the socialist government was "the vision of the political, social, educational and economic change to be a reality" (6).

Conscious enough of the education problem and its consequences for the national development, radical reforms were proposed at all levels of education. Among the most important changes were:

- the introduction of new tone system (monotoniko) in the use of written language;
- new revised textbooks for primary and secondary education;
- the introduction of new curricula and content in general education;
- reorganisation of the administrative system in primary, secondary and technical-vocational education;
- reorganisation of the structure and function of the first two stages of education. Emphasis was mainly on the organisation of the upper secondary level while the general structure of education the same (nine

years compulsory education, six years primary education, three years Gymnasio (lower secondary education) and three years Lyceum (upper secondary education) and - reorganisation of the structure and function of the Highest Educational Institutions (Universities).

Fundamental to these educational changes that had taken place was that they had a new basis of values in the conception of what education is for and what it should involve. But this implied changes in teachers' social roles, resources of knowledge and methods of work. Within this context there was an urgent need to equip the teaching profession for its altered contemporary functions.

The introduction of the University Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers by the Law 1268/1982, in July 1982, about the structure and functioning of Highest Institutions in Greece, (Article 46) (7) was the major response to this need.

Thus, from the academic year 1984-85, all the teachers for young children started to receive their pre-service education in the new University Pedagogical Departments, while at the same time the Teacher Training Colleges were to be phased out after two years. Although at the beginning there were only six such university departments, they have gradually been increased because of the Government's aim to establish them in all Greek universities.

In comparison with the Teacher Training Colleges the University Pedagogical Departments admitted students on the basis of a higher score in the national examinations and offered two more years of study.

The reform of Greek teacher education is a con-

siderably innovative attempt that is intended to contribute on the one hand to the Government's vision of educational "change" and on the other hand to teachers' expectations for equality of educational opportunity and better professional career and status.

The significance of the change for teachers and its implications for the future of Greek society all compel a study of teacher education falling into the broader context of an occupation which has a key role in fulfilling society's long term educational, social and economic aspirations.

The present thesis is a case study of teacher education reform in Greece based on the assumption that every educational reform remains always an important topic for comparative analysis by providing an understanding of the social and educational processes and contributing to the successful reform planning and development of education.

Curiosity becomes acute because the new institutional change set up a sequence of events before and after the Law was passed. The reactions have been negative from the right wing opposition parties and a group of university professors who attacked some provisions of the Law as being unconstitutional.

The debate about the reform was based mainly on social and political rather than on educational theories. The reorganisation of teacher education has been debated by political parties at length. This is because educational reform in Greece has always been a predominantly political issue (8). Policy decisions are derived in most cases from ideologies, from common sense or comparison with other countries. Educational research is non-existent (9). Thus there was not a systematic research or study preceding the policy decision.

Educational debates at the level of national policy were characterised by genuine teacher involvement - for the first time - through their elected leaders. Teachers' views have been asked for positively by the Ministry. Certainly the role of teachers' union as one of the interest groups, reacted creatively in most cases. Another characteristic was the opposition of powerful universities to the adoption and implementation of the policy. But the opposition of universities was not decisive because the Bill was drafted and became Law.

The introduction of University Pedagogical Departments forced particularly upon highest institutions the need for material equipment, sufficient personnel and the provision of a specific course content which would reflect the professional and esoteric pedagogical knowledge and skills teachers expected to acquire.

While the first two requirements obviously depend upon economic circumstances and the priority given by the government providing resources to implement the policy, it is the latter which seems to depend to a large extent on the willingness of universities to cooperate in implementing the reform.

Traditionally Greek universities used to be oriented towards academic disciplines and to control directly the content of the courses for secondary school teachers. The redistribution of power from the state to universities to control the content of the new courses for pre-primary and primary school teachers, brings it into a position, where faced with the demand for pedagogical studies and professional skills, it has to alter its traditional behaviour and to adopt new attitudes to appropriate knowledge for teaching.

In this case will educationists concerned with primary education be able to maintain control of their profession? The apparent political conflict over the control of the content between professors of education and professors of academic subjects indicate that the latter are not sufficiently adaptable to accept professional studies within its field and to work in a way which really will allow the policy to be successfully implemented. So the proposition put forward is that the change in the educational policy has not been followed by change in the mental states of the majority of people responsible for the organisation and structure of teacher preparation programmes. Also that these persisting traditional attitudes and behaviour within the university personnel acts back on the policy change and creates obstacles to the movement towards professionalisation.

These problems will be identified in terms of the professional orientation of teacher education programmes because it is

"the only safe prediction that is bound to be much different from a programme dominated by college professors and others over whom the teachers have little or no control" (10).

Moreover the structure and content of these programmes reflect implicit normative assumptions concerning the knowledge and skills required for teachers as well as their roles in a wider sense.

In attempting to explain the failure for change, for the purposes of this investigation it is suggested that problems may derive from the following:

- (a) the relationships between teacher education system with the administrative system of the country;
- (b) the relationships between teacher education system with the economic institutions of the country and
- (c) the relationships between teacher education system and the political institutions of the country.

Undoubtedly the former three concepts are inter-related and sometimes it is possible for them to be used in combination to explain problems associated with any reform of an educational system.

Although it is the third question which is of major significance for the present study, a brief analysis of the first two questions in the Greek national context is considered necessary.

The first question worth examining in comparative perspective is whether the highly centralised administrative system of the Greek education is likely to be a constraint on the attainment of the specific needs of teacher education.

The use of this conjecture to anticipate some of the problems which are likely to arise in a short or long term in Greece becomes clear in the writings of Th. Gerou, a Greek educationist, who claims that,

"Each educational reform in Greece, regardless of the economic resources, is not likely to succeed due to the present centralised administrative system" (11).

But again, the validity of the conjecture is rejected by other Greek educationists who trace the sources of problems to the lack of equality of educational opportunities (12) while some others in the political character of each educational process (13).

So far, the investigation reveals that the assumption is not generally justified and it is considered unnecessary to examine it further.

The second question provides the inadequate finance of education as a source of creating problems at the level of implementation and contributing to the "no change". Lack of material resources to improve aspects of education is more a reflection of government priorities than of absolute shortage. Clearly it is a valuable indicator of the value placed on education but there are some doubts as to whether it is an indispensable



feature for educational change.

Again this conjecture is refuted because the current increase of finance in the educational sector, compared with previous reform attempts, reveals precisely the governmental will and the general ability to act promptly in the face of relevant critical opposition. Thus again it is considered that economic inadequacy is not a determinist factor for successful implementation of teacher education reform.

The third question considers the view that educational policy making is politicised in a way to be of central concern in any educational reform.

This conjecture implies intention to place discussion about political processes in education and to recognise participants involved in the policy formulation- adoption and implementation process.

It is certainly true that "political constraints", persisting "lower valuations and traditional behaviour patterns" are the most obvious features in national contexts which may prevent the realisation of "planned solutions". (14).

Furthermore the argument that education in Greece has been an area of intense political controversy is confirmed by some very interesting writings of the Greek literature.

Thus among the specific initial conditions of the country we regard more important those which can be identified as political rather than economic or educational. So in trying to anticipate some of the difficulties associated with the successful implementation of the reform according to the present testing hypothesis - the possible obstacles should be examined through the political activities of the agents of the policy process.

### 1.3 Some Methodological Considerations of the Problem Analysis

#### 1.3.1 Basic assumptions of the problem solving approach

The starting point of the analysis is that the reform of teacher training created a confused situation about the traditional function of universities which were responsible only for the recruitment and training of intending teachers for the secondary schools.

Justification for this comparative study derives, according to Holmes, from the fact that,

"they are case studies based on the general assumption that confused situations arise from the prior introduction into a society of innovations whose effects have been more or less traumatic" (15).

The "Problem-solving" approach in comparative education advocated by B. Holmes seems to be particularly appropriate for further analysis of this thesis.

Its usefulness in education is to enable the comparative argument to be used with more rigour and precision in the reform and planning of education.

Furthermore the use of this methodological scheme in the belief that it is scientific and can be used as an instrument of educational reform, justifies the value of the study as a means to the improvement of teacher education and generally of the whole educational system in Greece. Constituents of the problem-solving approach in comparative education include (16),

- (1) Problem analysis or intellectualisation;
- (2) hypothesis or policy solution formulation;
- (3) the specifications of initial conditions or the context;
- (4) the logical prediction from adopted hypothesis of likely outcomes;
- (5) the comparison of logically predicted outcomes with

observable events.

The Problem-solving Approach illustrates Holmes' theoretical assumptions about comparative education. For him it is both an instrument of reform or planned development in education and a method of enquiry, leading to the development of knowledge and theory.

Implicit in these assumptions is the belief that a science of education, having directive and predictive power can be developed through comparative studies. The problem approach is an attempt to provide the basis for such a science.

Its methodological scheme derives from two major sources which are J. Dewey's theory of reflective thinking and K.R. Popper's hypothetico-deductive method.

The hypothetico-deductive method is based on Popper's theory of evolution in which problem-solving is the main activity.

"Before we can collect data, our interest in data of a certain kind must be aroused the problem always comes first" (17).

For Dewey, this problem creates confusion or perplexity in mind and gives rise to the process of reflective thinking (Stage One). As he puts it: "To reflect means to hunt for additional evidence" (18).

The state of confusion leads to an act of searching to find possible solutions for resolving the confused situation (Stage Two).

"In the face of a perplexing situation possible solutions spring to mind. Further reflection involves a process of intellectualisation out of which the problem to be solved becomes clearly formulated. This directs attention to data of a certain kind, namely, those relevant to the problem. Out of it emerge refined or new possible solutions which are then put forward and tested one after the other" (19).

### 1.3.2 Theory of social change

Holmes adopted Dewey's assumption that,

"In any society a number of forces are at work to bring about change. The directness and power of their impact are not distributed equally over all aspects of society - thus asynchronous changes are set up within it" (20).

Thus, he suggested that: "a theory of social change is needed if problem analysis is to be successful and replicatable"(21).

After due deliberation the conceptual scheme proposed by B. Holmes has been considered particularly appropriate for the purposes of the study.

In analysing a social context the investigator should obtain data relevant to the problem under investigation.

A classificatory scheme is necessary to organise the above data in categories which could be used as units for comparative analysis. Holmes has established a classificatory scheme based on K. Popper's theory of "critical dualism". The theory of "critical dualism" or "critical conventionalism" which deals with "a dualism of facts and decisions" (22), makes distinction between "normative laws" and "sociological laws".

Normative laws and norms represent man's beliefs and imply that since they are man-made they can be accepted, rejected or changed by man. Sociological laws are important natural laws of social life and are,

"connected with the functioning of social institutions and play a role in our social life similar to natural laws in engineering" (23).

The classificatory scheme assumes that two patterns are important in any national context.

The first is the normative pattern that includes statements about the norms and normative laws which people recognise in a named nation and are prepared to accept or reject.

These normative statements could be derived from the political, religious, educational, health-welfare or economic sphere and can be stated as Holmes suggested "ought to be the case" (24).

Sources from which the normative pattern can be derived are philosophical, constitutional provisions and legislation. Generally speaking legislation expresses on the agreed basis - regardless of what agreement has reached - "what ought to be the case".

According to Popper these normative statements can be rejected or accepted by the people as they think fit.

The second is the institutional pattern where he describes the following institutions: (25)

- (1) The educational institutions through which educational life of the society or a country is conducted.
- (2) The political institutions through which the political life or a country is conducted.
- (3) The religious institutions.
- (4) Health-welfare institutions.
- (5) Economic institutions.

Within the institutional pattern it is also possible to draw up what Popper regarded as sociological Laws.

There are a number of sociological laws which cannot be rejected if people do not like them. In that sense they are scientific - open to examination and potentially to refutation.

Fundamentally these institutions are run by people and depend on how these people think and how they conceive the functions of the institutions in terms of the normative pattern.

Thus the consequences of doing something in education for the political, economic or religious life of the country is determined by the way in which people operate those institutions.

The Institutional patterns are very important because it is in this area that scientific statements can be established and tested empirically in a scientific way or through comparative studies.

To these two patterns Holmes added two more: the "natural environment" and "mental state" pattern. The environmental pattern provides descriptions of the physical geography and geology of a country, the natural resources and the various demographic changes of a particular context. Undoubtedly they can influence an educational policy since, for example, economic expansion or severe recession tend to have a direct effect on education expansion. Although these are important features of a given society the natural environment is less than the institutional environment under the control of individuals.

Finally, the last pattern is that of "mental states" (26) which embraces persisting values and beliefs that motivate behaviour.

In fact most theorists of social change agree that

"a distinction should be drawn between the rhetoric of change and the persistence of behaviour patterns which reflect deeply held sentiments or values" (27).

Thus it describes what W. Ogburn calls the non-material, non-adaptive culture (28), V. Pareto as persisting residual (29), Marxists identify as "false-consciousness" (30), and G. Myrdal makes a distinction between "higher" and "lower" valuations (31). Here the concepts of "higher" and "lower" valuations as they have been introduced by Gunnar Myrdal are used.

G. Myrdal in The American Dilemma, shows that the "lower" valuations of American people are quite different from their "higher" valuations particularly in relation to attitudes to black people in the U.S.A.(32).

He assumed that people at the level of normative statements are willing to accept universally accepted principles motivated by "higher valuations" while at the level of mental states they are very reluctant and motivated by "lower" valuations, which are much more directly related to economic well being, status and so on.

However, this is a general societal taxonomy because it is extremely difficult to describe fully a society by making a full list of normative statements even though these may be founded in legislation or to describe adequately all the institutions which go to form a society or to formulate all the possible sociological laws linking institutional activities either within education or between education and other institutions or finally completely to describe the natural environment or the mental states which inform the behaviour of individual people.

Indeed, Popper asserts that theorists of social change should consider carefully (33),

"the difficulties which stand in the way of social action - the study, as it were, of the unwieldiness, the resilience, the brittleness of the social staff, of its resistance to our attempts to mould it and to work with it".

### 1.3.3 The Problem in Methodological Perspective

Holmes' theory of social change argues that the reasons for a change are not really as important as identifying the change. It is possible for someone to suggest that problems arise as a result of changes in any of the three patterns. Changes can be identified at normative or institutional patterns and problems can be related in terms of institutional development or normative statements or in terms of persistence of

certain mental states.

The central concept of the theory is that changes in mental states seldom take place prior to other changes in the other three patterns and indeed the persistence of mental states gives rise to most of the problems states face.

One can identify changes in one or the other of the three patterns above,

"the normative pattern is theoretically subject to the least predictable changes ... institutional changes are more predictable.... changes in the natural environment may be by chance or as the result of scientific research...." (34).

In this way man's freedom to change his mind characterises the pattern of mental states with a very high degree of uncertainty in predicting the outcomes of social policy.

In the light of the former concepts the University Law in Greece may be seen as a piece of legislation which introduced certain normative changes about the professional preparation of pre-primary and primary school teachers. Within the methodological framework of the study the basic hypothesis is that the institutional development of these changes is likely to be associated with difficulties which will create problems in the implementation process.

A policy is formulated by individuals, it is adopted by others, and can be implemented by a different group of people. It has been noted at the beginning that the new policy of teacher education in Greece is now at the level of implementation.

According to Holmes, policy implementation involves two issues for further comparative analysis. Firstly, the researcher may look at two alternative policies and try to predict logically - knowing the circumstances under which the policy has been put into practice - the outcomes of the policies in a



way that will allow it to be seen which one of the policies is likely to work either in the near future or in the long term. In this sense the purpose of the research is to give either technical assistance or useful advice to the policy-decision making body, or the government.

Secondly, it may look for possible answers in the following question,

"If a given policy has been adopted then what are going to be the difficulties associated with its implementation?"

Within this notion the aim of the research is to estimate the difficulties associated with the adopted policy, and possibly to help those responsible for the policy to anticipate some of the problems which are likely to arise.

It is exactly this view that informs the main purpose of this study which is to demonstrate some possible answers which could contribute to the successful implementation of the reform.

Before comparative educators apply any theory for predictive purposes, it is necessary for them to analyse the specific initial conditions on unique national circumstances in as much detail as possible. Holmes argues that (35),

"Theoretically, and certainly in practice, no theory should be used to predict events unless it is accompanied by a careful analysis and statement of the initial conditions or circumstances associated with the prediction."

Certainly this assertion is confirmed by K. Popper who states (36),

"To give a causal explanation of a certain specific event means deducing a statement describing this event from two kinds of premises: from some universal laws, and from some singular or specific statements which we may call the specific initial condition."

Thus it would be necessary for the discussion to look at the policy and its implications in the light of specific national

circumstances.

#### 1.4 The Procedure used in the Study

First and foremost it is necessary to indicate the specific content of the present investigation. The study will concentrate exclusively on the level of pre-primary and primary school teachers, education policies and current efforts to improve their professional status.

Information will be classified through the analysis of the specific issues of teacher education, the reform policy will be described in detail and the mechanisms and politics of the policy-making process will be analysed.

In elaborating the assumption that educational policy of teacher education in Greece is politicised, the framework of the analysis should be on the basis of,

"some selection from the total environment must be made if the outcomes of responses to changes in this environment are to be anticipated" (37).

In this sense, Chapter II, is analysing the theoretical and organisational aspects of pre-primary and primary teacher education in Greece in relation with the political institutions of the country from historical and social perspectives.

The theoretical aspects are dealing with the essential characteristics of the ideal teacher and his role in the ancient and modern Greek society.

Justification for such attempt derives from the fact that many of the major policy questions and constraints which affect teacher education reform proposals and discussions relate directly to philosophical issues of what constitutes an ideal teacher. As Holmes puts it,

"the whole concept of the ideal teacher in a changing world is in dispute and inhibits change." (38)

Through the analysis an attempt will be made to discover how far the traditional views of the teacher and his status in Greek society have influenced contemporary views and attitudes in a way that inhibits real change.

The organisational aspects examine the institutional structure of teacher training in Greece since the beginning of the 19th century. This second section of Chapter II investigates the influence of the political system on the development of teacher education and the need for change according to the needs of the modern society.

Having presented an adequate background of the issue, Chapter III is devoted to the kind of changes in the status of teachers for young children proposed in the 1982 Law.

The problem-approach recommends the use of models to organise discussion and to help in the analysis of the policy process (39).

Within this conceptual framework, the liberal model of the teaching profession, proposed by M. Lieberman, has been considered as the most appropriate against which the demands of teachers for professional status could be assessed.

The model of the teaching profession will be used through the study to analyse the main provisions of the 1982 Law and to characterise the position of its supporters.

In the light of the above institutional model we will try to establish a general taxonomy of the specific issues of teacher education preparation in order to provide a classificatory scheme for the present investigation.

In this section some necessary definitions and guiding

principles for the elaboration of the educational policy are drawn from the recommendations of International agencies on primary school teacher education. These recommendations have been presented as guidelines for planning reform on teacher education and their use in the present study help to provide a better understanding and a deeper analysis of the classified issues.

Chapter IV investigates in detail the particular aspect of teacher education in Greece on the basis of the general taxonomy established in Chapter III.

The first section deals with these aspects just before the reform in order to show the specific dimension of the dissatisfaction with the old system.

The second section focuses upon them since the policy change and attempts to analyse how far the institutional professional values are reflected in the provision of the Law.

It is on the basis of these issues that interest groups and individuals who participated in the decision-making process are investigated in Chapter V.

The chapter deals upon the conceptual framework of formal organisation and the mechanisms of administration and control through the decision-making. Two conceptual schemes seem to be of particular relevance,

- (i) T. Parsons' model of formal organisation used to facilitate the identification of the most important agents of teacher education change, and
- (ii) P. Peterson's concepts about the arenas of political activity are used to identify the arena of political debates.

In the light of the above assumptions the effectiveness of the Greek educationally relevant organisations are identified and analysed.

In Chapter VI, the concept of power is introduced in order to explicate the effectiveness of the operation of these organisations and to investigate the veto power of participants in the implementation process.

Having done this the distribution of power between Greek organisations in the policy process is studied in the light of the prevailing political conditions in Greece during the policy formulation, adoption and implementation.

Chapter VII, involves the actual contribution of the interest groups to the reform tested against the events related with the genesis of the policy change and the three-stage policy process.

Particular emphasis in the implementation process reveals conflicting views about the professional orientation of teacher education programmes expressed by those responsible for their structure and organisation. The study attempts to investigate the sources of the conflict and the way they are likely to influence negative change.

Finally, the programmes of studies of three universities are tested against the professional requirements of teaching, and their outcomes are explained.

In the final chapter the present condition of teacher education is evaluated in order to provide fruitful suggestions for successful future policies.

### References - Chapter I

- (1) Goodings, R., Byram, M. and McPartland, H., Changing Priorities in Teacher Education, The British Comparative Education Society, 1982, London, p.1.
- (2) Holmes, B., "Organisation of Teacher Training" in The Yearbook of Education, 1963, London, pp. 119-136.
- (3) Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in a Changing World" in The Yearbook of Education, 1963, London, p.3.
- (4) Graham, D., "Greece: Smartly Changes Pace and Directions", in The Times Educational Supplement, 9.4.1982, p.12.
- (5) Dimaras, A., "The Movement for Reform: A Historical Perspective" in Comparative Education Review, Vol. 22, No. 1, February, 1978, p. 11.
- (6) Vigopoulou, P., Pedagogikes Epistimes, Ed. V. Vasdekis, Vol. 2, p. 703, Athens, 1985.
- (7) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Nomos 1268, 16.7.1982, Athens, Article 46.
- (8) Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Educational Policy and Planning: Educational Reform Policies in Greece, Paris, 1980, p. 12.
- (9) Holmes, B., "The Politics of Education - The Case of Greece", in Diversity and Unity in Education, G. Allen and Unwin, London, pp. 132-139.
- (10) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1956, pp. 2-6.
- (11) Gerou, Th., Ekpedefitiki Politiki, Athens, 1981, p. 22.
- (12) Fragoudaki, A., Ekpedefitiki Metarrithmisi ke fileleft ergi dianocomenoi, Athens, Kedros, 1977, pp. 9-10.
- (13) Chatzistefanidis, Th., Istoria tis Neellenikis Ekpedefsisis: 1821-1986, Papadimas, D., Athens, 1986, p. 245.
- (14) Holmes, B., "Models in Comparative Education" in Compare, Vol. 11, No.2, 1981.
- (15) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, University of London Institute of Education, Comparative Education Department, p. 36.
- (16) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1981, p. 76.
- (17) Popper, K.R., The Poverty of Historicism, London, 1979, p. 121.

- (18) Dewey, J., How We Think, Heath, Boston, Mass., 1910.
- (19) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, op.cit., p. 33.
- (20) Dewey, J., in Holmes, B., "The Reflective Man: Dewey", in Nash, P., The Educated Man: Studies in the History of Educational Thought, New York, 1965, p. 317.
- (21) Holmes, B., Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 76.
- (22) Popper, K.R., The Open Society and Its Enemies, Vol. I, London, 1980, pp. 3-4.
- (23) Holmes, B., Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 77.
- (24) Ibid., pp. 80-82.
- (25) Ibid., pp. 82-83.
- (26) Ibid., pp. 83-84.
- (27) Ibid., p. 84.
- (28) Ogburn, F.W., On Culture and Social Change: Selected Papers, Chicago University Press, Chicago, 1964.
- (29) Pareto, V., Sociological Writings, selected by S.E. Finer, Blackwell, Oxford, 1976.
- (30) Marx, K. and Engels, F., The Communist Manifesto Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York, 1955.
- (31) Myrdal, G., The American Dilemma, 20th Anniversary edition, Harper and Row, 1962.
- (32) Ibid., Appendix I.
- (33) Popper, K.R., The Open Society and Its Enemies, op.cit., p. 94.
- (34) Holmes, B., Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 85.
- (35) Ibid., p. 46.
- (36) Popper, K.R., The Poverty of Historicism, op.cit., p. 122.
- (37) Holmes, B., "Models in Comparative Education", in Compare, Vol. 11, No.2, 1981, p. 160.
- (38) Ibid.
- (39) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, op.cit., p. 88.

## Chapter II

### PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE

#### SECTION I:

#### THE TEACHER-MODEL IN ANCIENT AND MODERN GREECE

In addressing ourselves to the problem of teacher education in Greece we need to know more about the mental states, the "residues", the "lower valuations" which motivate the behaviour of some individuals who are likely to resist the proposed changes in the teacher preparation system.

Holmes (1) claims that if we cannot discover what they are, we cannot anticipate how individuals will react to a new proposal or run a new institution.

In this sense the first section of this chapter is arranged to discover how far the traditional views of a teacher's role and status in Greece have influenced contemporary attitudes in such a way/<sup>as</sup> to constitute persistent traditional behaviour-motivating values and beliefs against the reform-movement. On the other hand, the second section of the chapter attempts to illustrate how these "conservative mental states and behaviour" have been reinforced by the kind of institutional structure of teacher education system for pre-primary and primary school teachers. Examining the development of teacher training institutions in Greece in historical and social perspectives the study will try to identify how far the traditional persisting values of the past about teachers' role and status in society are used to underpin teacher preparation courses and how acute became the problem under the pressures for change due to the changing socio-economic and political conditions of the country.

All these constraints and conditions must be understood



in the sense that they add another dimension to the information we need for the problem under investigation.

### 2.1.1 The teacher and Ancient Greece

In trying to identify the traditional views of the Greek teacher and his role in society we have necessarily to look back in the classical Greek world. This is because "the modern Greek education does not have exclusively its own centre towards which can it be directed or from which it can draw power and orientation"(2), thus tradition in education has been dominated by "... the philological and classical ideal, which has its roots in the ancient Greek civilisation" (3).

Thus the discovery of the sources of the traditional views and attitudes, applies to the presentation of theories and approaches about education and <sup>the</sup> teacher's role made by historians and philosophers of the ancient classical Greece.

Their contribution to the educational theory and teacher's stereotype through time lies mainly on their theories about the nature of man, the nature of society, the nature of knowledge and the methods of acquiring it.

In the period of classical Greek culture marked off by the establishment of the Athenian democracy (ref. between C5th and C4th B.C.) the schools of Plato and Aristotle, together with those of Stoics and Epicureans, became permanent institutions through which Greek thought permeated the ancient world (4).

These schools set up different discussions about education - what we should call educational theory today - and emphasised different characteristics about the ideal stereotype of the teacher and his role in society.

First and foremost, the ideal teacher should possess the lasting and ideal of excellence summed up in the Greek word arete: the quality that makes a man the best of his kind (5).

It is the changing expression of arete throughout time that influenced the qualities of the ideal teacher and gave him a multilateral nature and function.

The first teacher of the Greeks was the poet, however, whose epics were both the Bible and the Shakespeare of the classical world.

According to Castle "the Homeric ideal played the part of the Greek conscience and became the mould of the Greek spirit". In the beginning the teacher-poet regarded as "store houses" of moral precepts and examples (6), with knowledge mainly on practical matters. His function was to transmit the established culture and values from one generation to another.

Later, in Athens, when the poet and the city joined hands the city became the teacher's poet didactic purpose above all preparing the audience to join in the soul-searching medium of the drama, the crown of Greek poetry and a native produce (7).

Regarding the personal education of the poet-teacher, he was a man who had received no formal literary education than that provided by our own primary school. This was the reason why Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides and Aristophanes have been criticised by Plato as unreliable sources of knowledge and by Socrates as untrustworthy guides because they had not any knowledge but only opinions (8).

Thus while the teacher-poet at the very beginning was a simple transmitter of the traditional culture, later his function became more complex.

In Periclean Athens the new concept of the teacher,

the citizen-teacher, emerged from the assumption that in a free community every free citizen is a teacher. It is exactly this assumption which lay behind Pericles' proud boast that, "our city as a whole is an education to Greece" (9). From this point of view the citizen-teacher's role was that of mediator because he was to understand and to carry on the cultural heritage upon which the welfare of his city depended.

In that case he needed no special preparation and knowledge. The citizen-teacher has been criticised by Plato who, on the contrary, suggested that the teaching profession should be constituted by certain citizens in the ideal state.

On the other hand there is an apparent contradiction in Socrates' view in the Apology, that every free citizen must be a teacher and at the same time no one is a teacher, but only a learner (10).

Socrates denied the use of the words "teaching" and "teacher" in terms of the process of knowledge. He claimed that knowledge can be acquired through the inner self-activity of the learner in a group learning situation where everyone present participates on an equal basis. Thus knowledge cannot be transmitted by teaching; it is caused by stimulation to think throughout a series of questions from one person who is more knowledgeable - (the teacher) to another. He also believed that knowledge was the basis upon which goodness rests, and that to escape from the uncertainties bred by the spirit of the time, the technique of question and answer should be used in order to lead the youth of the day into a deeper, personal understanding of right and wrong.

Through his discussion method derives the perfect model of the teacher who "stimulates citizens to the painful effort of

thinking" (11). His concept of thinking and his manner of knowledge transmission justified the idea of calling him the first university tutor.

While for Socrates the teacher was to be a critic of the culture; for Plato he was an interpreter of tradition, a conditioner of the environment, a preserver of community standards and a guardian of morals (12). This contradictory conception about teachers' functions derives from his theory of education which has been seen as an instrument of class rule, in so far as it will help society to remain stable (13).

Thus his ideal society was a static society that changed as little as possible while education was mainly for the few, the leaders or the guardians of the state.

Plato brought in to view a new idea about teachers' nature called the philosopher-teacher. His teaching aim was to produce the best (14). For Plato,

"A good education is that which gives to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable..."

and also

"... the only education which truly deserves the name is that education in virtue from youth upwards, which makes a man eagerly pursue the ideal perfection of citizenship."

Training in citizenship did not mean for the philosopher-teacher commercial and technical instruction so important today, because trade and useful manual work were regarded as degrading to the citizen and were often left to slaves. It was mainly the knowledge of ethics and metaphysics that enabled the philosopher-teacher to perform a special role instilling the prevailing social principles in to young people for self-control and obedience to their rulers (15).

Socrates' ideal image of the teacher has a more practical function dealing with the whole potential development of students. His school of rhetoric created the rhetorician-teacher who,

"does not hold action in suspense until he achieves a theoretical perfection of knowledge but bases his advice on probability and on a careful survey of the facts of the case..." (16).

The rhetorician-teacher, with his special manner of expression prepared his students to play their role in the democratic institutions of Athens.

For Aristotle, who shows education as a fundamental part of politics, the politician-teacher fulfills the proper stereotype of his time. In his view the ideal teacher is the man who aims to "raise the pupil's sights towards a good higher than his own good" (17). Philosophically Aristotle believed that knowledge is a combination between what is fine and what is useful towards the good life. He also held the idea that man is to be soul and body and not an immortal soul temporarily fitted in a mortal body, as Plato believed.

Thus knowledge is not acquired only through the intellectual guidance of the teacher but also with the involvement of the learner's mental activity. The last factor, for Aristotle, was the most vital element in education.

Quite a different image of the prototype teacher was provided by the Sophists.

The name of Sophist applied to lectures of Sophia, a Greek expression that might mean everything from philosophy to practical "know-how" and "skills" (18). Thus Sophists were wandering scholars, who lectured on every kind of subject.

Marrow remarks about the Sophist's nature and teaching

function, (19)

"They were professional men for whom teaching was an occupation whose commercial success bore witness to its intrinsic value and its social utility."

and

"They never taught their pupils any truths about being or man, but merely how to be always, and in any kind of circumstances." (20)

It is obvious that the Sophists in so doing presented the teacher with a new function—that of vocational instructor who provided a desired service instead of the payment of fees. Besides, their appearance was both a response to and a cause of new social and intellectual trends.

Finally, what remains of the prototype teacher in ancient Greece either as teacher—poet or citizen—teacher or philosopher—teacher or rhetorician—teacher or politician—teacher or sophists is the social importance of their service. Either they acted as mediators and transmitters of the prevailing social values or critics of the tradition.

How were these views or part of them perpetuated through time in such a way to influence contemporary thought on teacher education in Greece?

When Greece emerged as a modern state in 1829, after the four centuries of Ottoman occupation, religious and ethical education became the most powerful tools in promoting the Hellenic homogeneity of the nation (21).

Moreover the apparent influence of the vavarian new classicism reinforced the Greek interest for the ancestry. Education followed closely the classically framed traditional model with heavy emphasis on religious aspects and classical studies. These views have dominated the Greek educational system for about one century. S. Bouzakis writes about this (22).

"The degrees which have been institutionalised during the period of Othon (1833-1862) put the foundations of an educational system which will dominate in our country for a century....

The foreign influences will effect... the structure, the ideology, the aims, the organisation, the pedagogical relationships between educators-students, the educational ideals and the internal functioning of school mechanisms... Thus, during Othon's period, it will be formed, it will be strengthened and it will be a permanent follower of the modern Greek education... the classicism, the phanariotiko spirit and the aristocratic poideia (contempt of any manual work).

In other words, the main characteristic of Greek education in the 19th century was "the return to the past, a strong tendency for the revival of the classical age" (23).

Considering that the traditional objectives of formal education were to promote stability, not development, the main role of national education in Greece was to produce social stability (24).

Against this view the concept of teacher arises as a mediator and conserver of the classical tradition. Furthermore, he fulfils both a general and a particular function: he has to form character and to develop moral understanding while at the same time he teaches his subject.

After due deliberation, one could find some of the Platonic assumptions about the nature of man, knowledge and society prevailing in modern Greece and even shaping the Greek prototype teacher, during the 19th and 20th centuries as well.

Indeed, the educational views of many contemporary philosophers in Greece - who hold parallel influential occupational posts in the political or the educational sphere - "were continuing the aristocratic, Platonic ideal of education" (25). Among them for example (26) Theodorakopoulos J., Professor of Philosophy in the Universities of Athens and Thessaloniki, was a prominent follower

of the Platonic ideas who considered educational issues between the Platonic and German idealism. Also Tsatsos K., Professor of the School of Law in the University of Athens with many political activities as Minister of Education and President of the Greek Democracy, believed that although the return to the classical age is impossible, some preparation for the future is possible, because the near future would be saturated by a spirit similar to that of classical time.

Finally, Papanoutsos, E., was a follower of the Platonic ideal but he tried to relate his views with the primary and secondary school reality.

#### 2.1.2 Teacher and Modern Greece

By the end of the 19th century the educational ideas of Hebart originated new assumptions in educational theory which have permanently affected the work of Greek teachers and their role (27).

The fact that Hebart's concepts on education influenced the Greek educational orientation is justified from the following:

- (i) by the end of the 19th century, a pedagogical nucleus which had risen from the Iena University inspired by Hebart's ideas, has dominated the educational field and disseminated his theory around the country.
- (ii) These educational ideas were accepted officially by the Greek state with the educational decree of September 3rd 1880 and
- (iii) Among the most influential personalities in the Greek education who "officially through the state's powerful mechanisms influenced decisively until his death



(1960), but even until today he is still influencing the Greek education system "is the pedagogos, N. Exarchopoulos" (28) who was a follower of the Hebartian principles."

Thus, J.P. Hebart's ideas about education and teaching methods became the working tools of training colleges for a long time. He was concerned with the techniques - based on psychological considerations - for the attainment of both teaching instruction and character training through interest. He argued (29),

"the aim of education is to make a good man;  
a good man is one who wills rightly;  
our acts are determined by our desires;  
our desires by our interests;  
and our interests by the education we receive."

Hebart's higher conception of the teacher was a unique one of intellect, artistry, human sympathy and technical skill. Such a combination was an approval for a very high social status for the teaching profession. Unfortunately, training colleges adopted only part of his assumptions, thus ensuring the lowly status of practitioners. A major justification could be sought in the way these ideas have been interpreted and adopted in the Greek context.

According to Exarchopoulos (30),

"... during the preparation period of primary school teachers, education and knowledge.... should stand in the second place in comparison with the form of his personality... This view about the role of the teacher... idealise his function.... and recognises him not only as a simple official of the state, but as a national apostle, as the main agent of the State's ideals...."

Certainly this type of teacher which was required from the State and consequently was prepared in the training colleges was not the professional, the specialist on education matters, since his teaching function was mainly based on his personality or on his talent.

In other words it was not the teacher who could base his teaching function on the knowledge of the science of education. In this sense, teacher training colleges were preparing lower status teaching personnel in comparison with other professional groups.

Parallel with this pedagogical movement which diverted through the state's official mechanisms, the beginning of the 20th century in Greece was marked by a new educational movement with entirely different philosophical and pedagogical dimensions.

This movement, named Ekpedeftikos Demotikismos (Educational Popularism) was formed by individuals and associations who consisted of the liberal intelligentsia of that period and started primarily, as/<sup>an</sup>idea from the language problem (31). It was based on the belief that the modern Greek tradition and the modern Greek language were the most important factors in the Greek education. Its main aim was,

"people's return to the authentic,.... the essential, the real and their release from the artificial, the classical, the typical..." (32).

Eventually, this movement got a broader aim with national and social dimensions,

"the renaissance of Greek education... and the entirely reforming of Greek life, national and social" (33).

By the same time the fresh air of progressivism, which touched relatively late the Greek educational system, supported

primarily by the Ekpedeftikos Demotikismos since,

"Greece is always suspicious in the acceptance of new trends.... mainly in the field of education" (34).

Although the representatives of the progressive movement in Greece have been influenced by the principles of Schools for Work of Kerschensteiner, we can support,

"that indirectly the Greek pedagogy accepted the influence of Dewey's principles... because the German pedagogy had been under the influence of pedagogical principles of Dewey" (35).

For Dewey, "education is a process of living and not a preparation for future living" (36), because he viewed the world as continuously changing under the various socio-economic and technological changes.

Teacher education for primary grades was affected particularly by Dewey's ideas in the way that colleges for teacher training encourage teachers to become more permissive, less authoritarian, to replace the Herbertian "lesson" pattern with the "activity programme" and to accept more responsibility for social and personality development of children (37). Moreover, through his philosophical orientation the teacher emerges in two dimensions. On one side is the academic teacher of philosophy who teaches that philosophy and education are two sides of the same coin, and on the other side, the teacher in the school community whose job, is, as Dewey puts it, "to psychologise the environment, to take and develop it within the range of the child's life (38).

Educational progressivism, as a reform movement for teacher education was the source for a new prototype teacher who should be an active agent for change in the dynamic society.

The appearance of Ekpedeftikos Demotikismos was followed

at the beginning by "reactions from the conservatives" (39). The theoretical and practical aspects of the movement had been characterised as a form of "educational revolution and for this reason their representatives were suspicious persons". Indeed educationists like Delmouzos, A., Glenos, D., Triantafillidis, M., etc., were ignored and dismissed by those involved in the policy-decision. S. Derbisis (40) writes,

"The conservatism, in front of the "danger" of Ekpedeftikos Demotikismos, started to organise and to rouse the conservative powers... against any reform attempt for the renaissance of our education.

Thus, by the time two movements are formed, the Ekpedeftikos Demotikismos and the Ekpedeftikos Sintiritismos (educational conservatism), which are fighting until today, something which will contribute to the delay of the development of our pedeia."

In this sense, until today in the field of Greek education we have a division of the intelligentsia into traditionals and progressives (41).

The traditional s' ideas are represented through the rightwing political parties while the ideas of the progressives by the liberal progressive political parties. Depending on which political party is in power, the educational system is formed in accordance with its ideology (42).

The traditional ideas are oriented towards the classical Greek ideals and literature, Christianity, the rationality of Herbert's educational ideas and try to strengthen as much as possible their status quo against all views of "educational revolution".

These were the main assumptions which were used to shape the preparation courses of primary and pre-primary school teachers since their establishment until 1982.

This view is justified clearly in a speech given by

the then Minister for Education, Th. Tourkouvelis, at a general meeting of secondary school teachers,

".... I have presented a Bill to regulate the training of future teachers, instituting a classical education and a two-year course at the newly established Pedagogical Academies".

These principles were in operation for about 50 years in the aims and development of teacher training colleges, since,

they were dependent to a large extent on the political and ideological choices of the prevalent conservative forces.

Teacher Training Colleges kept their standards and continued to maintain that the teacher should act as a conservator of the tradition and a mediator between one generation and the next.

According to C. Fragos (43),

"All these people who were dealing with educational issues, all the official administrative factors of education, obstinately wanted to keep the teachers unsuspecting and uninformed about the contemporary pedagogical problems including the teachers' educators in pedagogical academies...."

Under these circumstances, all educational reforms which were introduced by the PASOK had a basic assumption behind them: teachers should be the active agents for the "vision" of social, political, educational and economic change of the country. But these requisites of the teacher implies a high professionally skilled person who should realise that the aim of all educational practices were to revitalise the great democratic Greek society.

The University Departments of Teacher Education seem to be the most appropriate institutions to provide the necessary knowledge and skills.

Thus it is expected that these departments will be the nurseries of a new ideal model of the Greek teacher which due to

his adequate professional preparation will create new situations for stimulating thinking within the school and society and contributing actually in the policy process.

## SECTION II

### THE INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE

The central concern of this section is the discussion of the origins and growth of teacher training institutions in contemporary Greece, the current development and the problems confronting them.

This will be examined in the context of the general school structure and the various socio-political as well as economic coincidences that determined the evolution of the Greek educational process.

Undoubtedly the early development of school organisation was of decisive importance in splitting the development of primary and secondary teachers' institutions and unavoidably the teaching profession.

Thus to understand properly the present organisation of teachers' professional training in Greece it is necessary to place it in its historical setting.

The historical review focuses attention upon the dualistic system inherent from the traditional European model of teacher education, which was designed to provide an elementary school for the "people" and an advanced education for the "few" (44).

Consequently before proceeding it will be useful to consider some aspects of teacher education in the light of the European pattern and the problems inherent in present educational policies of those countries which have been under its influence.

### 2.2.1 The European Model of Teacher Education

The origins of the two distinct systems of teacher education fall in to the same perspective as the origins of the two parallel types of schooling which began to emerge in Europe by the middle of the nineteenth century, when the invention of mass elementary education led to the need for a mass training of teachers and the creation of training institutions for them.

For the "few" there was a small number of secondary schools which prepared them carefully for entry to the universities and the gaining of the academic university degree was a licence to teach in its own right (45).

Thus academic secondary school teachers have always received their education in the universities and then returned to teach in secondary schools.

Therefore, the mental pattern of professional teacher education existed in Europe from the 15th century onwards, on the basis that the academic type of education provided in universities, was the only acceptable education for admission to the professional community of the teachers, medicine, church or law.

In most cases the characteristics of this type of education were (46),

- (a) emphasis was given to the academic studies suited for the liberal profession
- (b) pedagogical training was very narrow and was often loosely organised and
- (c) it was the kind of general education appropriate to the leisured classes.

These were common features of the three major European systems - the French, German and English - which influenced many countries

in a number of ways.

For example, Greek universities and their educational provision until recently, reflected the features of the nineteenth century establishment run on the old German model where,

- courses were not tightly structured or lecture plans systematically presented.
- Professors with high academic and social prestige.
- Lectures to large numbers of students.
- And of course, examinations to determine awards of degrees.

When training colleges came in to life in the European context to supply teachers for expanding elementary education, there was not any relationship with the already existing system at universities.

As Ross points out,

"The training college tradition has its roots in the need to provide a means whereby the poor could be educated and trained to educate the poor in elementary schools"(47).

The provision of elementary schools for the people, was designed to train literate, patriotic and morally sound workers (48).

Teachers for these schools were recruited from among normal schools or pedagogical institutes or training college graduates, which in fact became schools similar to secondary level of education and indeed had no contact with universities.

The purpose of these establishments was to extend and complete the general education with the provision of some kind of training in religious education, practical experience in teaching and acquisition of basic knowledge.

Thus, the divisions in the school structure were repeated in the divisions of the teacher training structure. The two



categories of institutions for the education of teachers had few points of contact because there were bases of different theoretical assumptions and patterns of attitudes as well as holding different places in the hierarchy of social institutions (49).

Such oriented European response established the dual system for preparation of teachers which perpetuated through the century and had considerable effects on present educational policies, in all those countries which have been influenced by the European tradition.

Finally, the main problems inherited from the former European traditional model can be summarised as follows:

- (i) The recruitment of students and staff was from different socio-economic groups.
- (ii) The two distinct forms of teacher education have been developed on the basis of different modes of preparation.

Teacher training for primary school teachers emphasised general education which in content, was very similar to that of courses in academic secondary schools while for secondary school teachers priority was given to the study of subject matter and the modes of enquiry appropriate to research or teaching in an established university.

- (iii) The two categories of teacher education had a considerable effect on the professional, economic and social status teachers enjoyed and led to the performance of different roles for each group.

Consequently, the large gap between the two parallel types of teacher education had been extended in the teaching profession

from the nineteenth century to the present time.

This was the model adopted by the Greek teacher education system and consequently it might be said that inherited all its problems.

For PASOK these problems of teacher education were to be solved only by breaking down all the dichotomies between the teaching personnel at pre-primary, primary and secondary schools. This was because it wished to show the future of teacher education in a united teaching profession, equally educated with equal opportunities in their professional career in economic and social status.

Thus it can be said that the reform proposals introduced by the 1982 Law had as a main target to abolish this traditional model. Besides the fact, that the general features of the model had been introduced and kept in line by the educational conservatism, was another force for change at the ideological level.


But this issue will be understood better through the following discussion on the development of the institutional structure of pre-primary and primary teacher education.

## 2.2.2 Historical Perspectives on Teacher Education in Greece

### 2.2.2.1 Teacher Education in the 19th Century

Greece after her independence - as far as Western sources of educational practice are concerned - adopted for the educational system the so-called Bavarian Plan of 1834-36, patterned after the French elementary education Law of 1833 (Guizot Law) and the Bavarian secondary educational system (50). A three ladder system of elementary, secondary and higher education was established according to the educational decrees of the years, 1834, 1836 and 1837/8.

Diagram 1The Structure of the Greek Educational System in 19th Century

Age	7 8 9 10	11 12 13 14 15 16	17 18 19 20
Level	I	II	III
Stage	Elementary	Secondary	
		Hellenic School	Gymnasio
			Highest
		Teacher Training	
			University



= Compulsory Education

The Educational Law 1834 with 70 articles about the organisation of elementary education, although it did not state the aims, defined the primary school organisation, the curricula, the seven years' compulsory education for all children, issues relevant with the committee of inspectors, the education of girls, private education and finally the last 6 articles were devoted to the education of primary school teachers (52).

The curricula of elementary education anticipated by the former law included religious education, the three R's, (53), music and Greek, which according to the historian Lafa, "... it was impossible to be taught because of the inadequate education of the teachers..." (54).



The aims and purpose of secondary education were defined very clearly in the educational law of 1838. It was only for those who would go on to higher education in the university (55), and thus teaching subjects should serve this purpose. The graduates of Gymnasia could study in the university without entrance examination - medicine, theology, law or philosophy. Consequently, two parallel systems of schooling had been developed from the beginning: elementary schools for the "masses" and secondary schools for the "few" since the existence of Gymnasia only in urban areas was restricted to the majority of the population about 9/10 - who lived in small villages (56).

Teachers for secondary education were educated in Universities after their completion of elementary and full secondary education (3 years Hellenic School and 3 years Gymnasio).

Teachers for elementary education were prepared in the unique Teacher Training Colleges named Didaskalion which were established by the Law 1834. The Didaskalion was under the direction of one director - who should be the general inspector of all Greek schools - and two professors, one of whom should originate from the priestly axiom (57). It offered a two years course for students who had completed four years' elementary school and two years Hellenic school and passed an entrance examination. The education of teachers was restricted on the one side to the element of the general education and on the other side to be familiar with the mutually instructive method of teaching (58). But in fact their professional preparation was so inadequate and so bad<sup>that</sup> the establishment was abandoned thirty years later in 1864 (59).

The graduates of the Didaskalion, according to their performance in the studies, were divided into three categories:

- (a) First class teachers were the graduates who had passed with "excellent".

- (b) Second class teachers were the graduates who had passed with "very good" and
- (c) Third class teachers were those graduates who had passed with "good".

These three categories of elementary school teachers had to teach by legislation in different schools on the basis of the geographical distribution of schools as well as of the socio-economic background of students taught (60).

First class teachers were to teach at schools sited in big cities and should possess the characteristic knowledge of the ideal primary teacher which was:

- Exact knowledge of religious education. It should be mentioned that religious and ethical education were regarded as the major tools for the production of the Hellenic homogeneity of the newly formed nation.
- Good knowledge of the three R's.
- Theoretical and practical aspects of the Greek Grammar (Classical Greek).
- Some aspects of Greek history, geography, geometry, pedagogy, and didactic, music and art, gymnastics and practical knowledge of agriculture.

Second class teachers could teach in the country areas and were less educated than the first class.

Third class teachers could teach only at schools in villages and for their education it was sufficient to have knowledge of

The division between elementary school teachers led to the establishment of some kind of different type of training. Undoubtedly it caused problems related on the one hand with inequalities between them at the level of their preparation, status

and salaries and on the other hand with the whole educational policy.

Finally, two things should be noted. First, this kind of educational policy led to the foundation of the Greek educational dependence on the foreign educational policy.

Accordingly, the emergence of the two parallel systems of teacher education was not the outcome of some historical antecedents - as happened in other countries - but its roots lie at the beginning of the establishment of the Greek educational system, when the authorities adopted the existent Bavarian type as a model for the structure of the whole educational system (61).

From the comparative point of view it was not the case of cultural borrowing which was the characteristic element of the period and closely associated with the development of elementary education (62), but was the transplantation of a foreign educational system into the national Greek system of education regardless of circumstances and therefore caused short and long term problems.

The second feature of the policy was the diversification (63) of elementary school teachers, a feature which would later play a contributory role in the introduction of new values, new pedagogical ideas and the concept of Demotikismou with its ideological dimension.

In 1864 the Didaskalia for the training of primary school teachers appeared again in the light of Greek legislation under more progressive lines.

According to the educational Law X9/1878 the new institution was established in Athens together with a prototype primary school for the practical training of students. It offered a three year course and admitted students who,

- (i) had completed six grades of basic schooling,
- (ii) had Greek nationality,
- (iii) had age between 16-25 years,
- (iv) were physically healthy.

The curricula of the course contained mostly general subjects such as Religious Education, General Pedagogy, Classical and Modern Greek, History, Arithmetic, Geography, Physics, Natural History, Chemistry, Experience of Farming, Music, School-health and Gymnastics.

The teaching staff included three teachers of academic subjects such as Philosophy and Science with Higher Studies (Ph.D.).

The aim of the Law was to set up high standards in teacher education but unfortunately the attempt was followed by regression due to various national, political and socio-economic circumstances. In the meantime the great shortage of teachers led to the establishment of three more similar institutions in other parts of Greece, which offered one, two, three, four and even five years course depending on the students' qualifications.

In addition, the private sector established the first Didaskalio (1897) for girls which exists today and the first college for training kindergarten teachers Didaskalio Nipiagogon (64).

The latter was a private institution until the year 1922 when it became the State's responsibility and since then has followed the same path as the other Colleges of Education. For forty years it was the only institution responsible for the education of kindergarten teachers.

Thus by the end of the 19th century the training of primary and pre-primary school teachers in Greece was based on quite different assumptions from those of secondary education. These assumptions were reflected in the values, ideologies and

intellectual orientation of their education as well as on their different professional prestige and economic status. While the situation remained static by the beginning of the 20th century certain voices of enlightened people following the tendencies of the time, asked for reform and modernisation. It was the movement of the Educational Demotismos.

#### 2.2.2.2 Teacher Education in the 20th Century

##### (a) The Educational Reforms of 1913 and 1917

After a long period of political consideration where the ideological orientations and practical concerns of the government in power was reflected in all aspects of the educational policy, a new effort for educational reforms began during the period of the years 1913-1917.

According to the Greek commentaries,


"The reforms of 1913 and 1917 are the first civic-democratic linguistic educational reforms of the 20th century. Their objectives were the adaptation of education in to new social and economic conditions of the country as they had been formulated with the liberal government in power..." (65).

It can be said that particularly the Law-plans (nomoschedio) of the year 1913 had<sup>a</sup> more advanced, contemporary and democratic philosophy than the reforms of the years 1964 and even 1976 (66).

Diagram II (b7) shows the proposed new structure of the educational system. Under the new proposals the various categories of primary school teachers were to be abolished. Furthermore all future teachers for young children should complete six years primary education, three years lower secondary education (in the Higher Practical Schools) and after successful examinations to be prepared in the Didaskalio.



Diagram IIThe Structure of the Greek Educational System  
with the Educational Reform of 1913-17

Age	4-5	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16 17 18	19 20 21 22
Level		I	II	III
Stage	Kinder- garten	Primary	Secondary	Highest
				University
			Higher Practical School	
				Teacher Training
				Naval School
				Technical Vocational Schools



= Compulsory

There are two characteristics of the policy-making process. First the policy formulation was postulated from the pragmatic philosophy that "school should prepare children for life"... Second, the composition and the role of the policy making committee consisted of a group of progressive educators (Glenos, Delmouso and Triantafillidis) who were members of the Educational League (Ekpedeftikos Omilos) and followers of the popular language (demotikismou) and active members of the Educational Demotikismos.

These people attached great importance to the education of teachers because they believed firstly that the success of the educational reforms depended very much on them and secondly that their inadequate preparation was one of the major problems of the basic education.

Although the attempt was mainly concentrated on the introduction of the modern Greek language (demotiki) in the first four grades of the primary school, considering the training of primary school teachers initiated new elements in the improvement of in-service education and their economic status (68).

An important feature was the establishment of the Pedagogical Academy in Athens responsible for the education of the teaching staff in teacher training colleges. It offered two years specialised courses for those who had a degree in philosophy, physics, mathematics and theology and were intending to teach at Didaskalio (69).

Of course the reform was highly criticised by conservative political parties and other groups involved in the educational process. Between them the Philosophical School of the University of Athens played a major role and confirms that through the reforms "the ancient Greek language and the whole humanistic education are dismissed" (70). A few years later the reform was annihilated by the governmental change in power in the year 1920.

As a result the existence of Pedagogical Academy was considered unnecessary (71) and remained on paper for three years until the year 1924 when it accepted the first students. At the same time a new training college, the Marasleio Didaskalio had been established and worked parallel with the Pedagogical Academy for the practical training of the teacher training staff. The new establishment later became the prototype Didaskalio of

the state. But the story of educational reform projects proposed by the liberal parties was repeated and the former attempt was followed by regression.

(b) The Educational Reform of 1929

The Greek educational system reached a critical point again in 1929. The period between 1928 and 1932 was marked by a new radical reform movement which was to bring changes in the basic assumptions of the system and could lead to a democratic political system, to social justice and economic prosperity.


The nation needed a radical change because,

"The educational system neglected the educator of the masses and became oligarchical and it was one-sided, entirely theoretical and neglected the practical education" (72).

The educational reform brought changes in the structure of the system: six years compulsory primary education and six years secondary education (Diagram III), textbooks, care and pre-school

Diagram III

The Structure of the Greek Educational System  
with the Educational Reform of 1929

Age	4-5	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16 17 18	19 20 21 22
Level		I	II	III
Stage	Kinder- garten	Primary	Secondary	Highest
				University
			Teacher Training	
			Lower Vocational Schools	



= Compulsory Education

education, education for girls and teacher training (73).

According to the Law 4368 the teacher training institutions extended to provide five year courses for students who had completed six years compulsory education and two years Gymnasio. Another important element of the reform associated with the training of primary school teachers was the introduction of Demotiki in primary schools (74).

The application of the popular language in the educational system aimed to bring the teacher closer to the pupil and in general the whole education close to real life.

But the reform was checked again by reaction from those who were "in favour of the old system and against any kind of change in education" (75).

Again the main reaction came from the Philosophical School of the University of Athens which was always in favour of the archaistic tradition and against any radical reform.

(c) The Period 1932-1940

The political evolution had direct influence on the former reform and finally the dictatorship which followed (4th August 1935) changed again the educational system to as it was before the reform and brought the literacy language - the catharevousa - into primary schools.

But during this period the new policy for teacher education is remarkable. In 1933 the Didaskalio was abolished and replaced by a new kind of Institution, the Pedagogical Academy similar to those institutions in Prussia. The establishment of these new educational institutions for the training of teachers is owed to the previous General Secretary of the Ministry of Education, G. Palaiologos, who was an expert in the German system of education (76). Furthermore, two years later the

Institutions for the Training of Kindergarten Teachers had been replaced by the Schools of Nipiagogon.

Both kinds of institution accepted students who had completed full secondary education and passed an entrance examination. The two year course which had been offered was open to both sexes in Pedagogical Academies. While it was restricted to females only in the Schools of Nipiagogon. Finally they became part of the tertiary education by the Law 953 in 1937.

At first glance the reform displayed a progressive conception about the value of education in general as well as the role and the status of pre-primary and primary school teachers in particular. Moreover under these circumstances it could be said that the new policy meant a considerable improvement in teacher training since the establishment of the Greek state, despite the fact that even the major problems had not yet been solved. But if one analyses the procedures which led to the former reform it will be evident how far it was the result of the existing educational needs and how well it fitted in with the political values of the political leaders.

The pedagogical climate of the Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon, their intellectual and moral orientation - as it emerges from legislation reports, statements and other policy - (77) emphasised the traditional classical values and the old beliefs and not the liberal and modern views.

At the same time they sought to transmit, through the teacher, a body of well established knowledge in accordance with the acceptable ideological framework (78) and not with the practical requirements of everyday life. Upon closer examina-

tion, however, the reform was related to the language-question (79), an issue which caused a long term dispute and had far-reaching socio-political effects in Greece. It sought to strengthen the pure form of the Greek language - Katharevousa.

The conjecture is justified from the following:

- (i) access to Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon was for those who studied full secondary education. Consequently it meant access only for those who used Katharevousa as a spoken language since it was the teaching language in secondary level of education. Furthermore, the new teachers had to teach Katharevousa in pre-primary and primary schools.
- (ii) The former assumes that the new establishments prepared teachers for the role of the transmitter - from one Greek generation to the other, of the classical values of the past through the pure language.

Certainly these views were not accepted by those who were in favour of the reform and claimed that, (80)

- (i) the future teachers should have the same educational background, received in primary and secondary schools as the teachers in secondary schools,
- (ii) at the end of secondary education, students are at the proper age to choose their professional orientation.
- (iii) Primary school teachers must be selected from secondary level graduates.
- (iv) Future teachers will complete their general education in secondary school and particularly in classical classes which are dominated by classical Greek, grammar and Latin.

According to the Minister of Education of the time,

"It was the classical education which kept the heart of the secondary school teachers on the whole and these ideas of primary school teachers - the majority was against the reform - are because of the lack of it" (80).

The case was rather idiosyncratic because against the teacher's professionalisation the policy could be seen as a step forward. On the other hand it was a solution to a problem which had been created by political leaders and not by the teachers themselves who used to teach in the popular language and were satisfied with their training in Didaskalia, nor by the majority of the Greek population who lived in small villages and were familiar only with the popular language.

Considering the above assumptions obviously the new Institutions,

- (a) were to turn to the area of ideological and political struggle.
- (b) Their basic assumptions as well as their intellectual orientation were defined mainly by political and not by new sociological, psychological or pedagogical stimulus (82).
- (c) Despite the reform they perpetuated the problems inherent from the European model because the change was what A. Dimaras called "a technical and not an ideological approach to the problem" (83).

These problems of pre-primary and primary teacher education has remained almost the same for fifty years.

Furthermore, the outbreak of the Second World War, (1940-1944), the double invasion, the triple occupation and the civil war in Greece (1945-1949), exerted in many ways an influence over the educational, economic and social aspects of the Greek policy.

### 2.2.3 Social Perspectives on Teacher Education in Greece

The broad economic, political and social changes which occurred in societies after the Second World War have greatly affected the educational enterprise. According to Holmes, three major changes may be regarded as particularly significant and relevant for the purposes of this study, the triple explosion of expectations, population and knowledge (84).

People began to think about a better tomorrow and sought higher standards of living.

Access to education was regarded as the main way to attack poverty, ignorance and imperialism (85). This growth of expectations coincided with the movement from the static society into a socially mobile world in which everyone was to be educated. Moreover education had come to be regarded not only as a basic human right but also as an instrument for social and economic power (86).

In developing countries it was expressed by the establishment of universal primary education while in developed countries by the expansion of secondary education and even higher education (U.S.A.). The success of such educational policies were dependent largely not only upon the recruitment and quantity of teachers but also implied modernisation of teaching, improvement of the quality of education and revision of basic pedagogical notions in accordance with the conception of democracy and equality of opportunity.

All this brought changes in the orientation of the educational system and seriously challenged the traditional role of the teacher. Apart from demographic change and the increase in the total number of pupils and the movement of people around the world new requirements were needed for the national system



of education and the supply of teachers. Finally, the growth of knowledge made imperative qualitative changes in education which had implications in the development of new trends in teacher education. Training courses had to include the new features of the change otherwise new problems would be created. By the end of the Second World War all the European countries started an intensive attempt for their political, economic and educational restoration.

#### 2.2.3.1 The Period 1944-1960

In Greece, the issue of educational reorganisation was the main theme and some drafts were proposed.

The most radical was that proposed by two left wing committees (EAM and EMON), inspired by the ideas of D. Glenos, called Plans of Popular Paideia and submitted to the Political Committee of National Liberation (87).

According to the draft all teachers should be educated for four years in higher level institutions, similar to universities. Also they should have the same social and economic status as secondary school teachers as well as the same career development.

Despite the rigorous influence (88) of the Soviet prototype the former draft could give new orientation in educational and social perspectives of the Greek context. But it did not touch the post-war educational policy at all.

Furthermore it was the traumatic event of the civil war after the liberation which lasted until 1949, when a constitutional monarchy was reestablished. While the institutional structure of the whole educational system remained similar to that of the period before the war, the urgency for structural and qualitative

educational reform was so imperative that it had been emphasised even by the representatives of the Greek educational conservative N. Exarchopoulos, when he answered in the revelant research of the newspaper VEMA, in 1953,

"... The education, under the current conditions, it is impossible to fulfil its aims and purposes... It is necessary for our educational system to be rebuilt from the beginning" (89).

But despite the official discussion the Greek educational policy and the development of teacher education remained remarkably similar to that proposed by the earliest advocates before the Second World War. The main educationally related event of the late fifties was the report of a Committee on Education (90) - members of which were <sup>such</sup> outstanding names of the Greek Letters as N. Louros, I. Theodorakopoulos, G. Palaiologos, E. Paparoutsos - entitled Conclusion of the Committee on Education (Porismata Epitropis Pedeias). But in fact the report and the consequences (Law 3971) was a response to the economic development of the country, thus it was primarily pertaining to technical education and not to the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers.

In the meantime, after the sixties, the area of teacher education was being viewed with increasing interest internationally and was the chief subject for discussion in reform in most developed countries. Critics of the European model claimed that it was not the kind of pattern which would serve the future needs of societies and experts were agreed that the existing forms and methods of preparing future teachers were of doubtful value.

Besides the concept of the professionalisation of teachers necessarily had to be widened to include social and economic considerations in addition to traditional education

concerns.

The changing priorities in the educational field were stressed in 1962 by Vernon Mallinson (91) in the Conference held at the University of Reading when he declared,

"What we want then, is not a new purpose of education but rather a clarification and a redefinition of the concept of the educated man in terms of the modern world."

There was no doubt that he called for the need for revision of the traditional theoretical assumptions about education and their implications in aims, context and methods of teacher training.

New pressures began to mount for change and the re-considerations and re-organisation of teacher-education have been discussed vigorously.

It is possible to generalise about some of the major motivating forces which reinforced teacher education reforms efforts throughout the world after the 1960s.

Clearly, not all of these forces stimulated with the same degree reform efforts in every country, but the following listing will provide an overview to the pressures for teacher education innovations in general and in Greece in particular.

#### 2.2.3.2 The Period 1960-1985

##### (a) Pressures for change:

##### (1a) The Expansion of Higher Education

The gradual expansion of free secondary education which had taken place since World War Two due to political, economic and social justice forces, increased enrolments at the tertiary level.

Universities in many countries have expanded dramatically and student numbers have doubled in a short time (92).

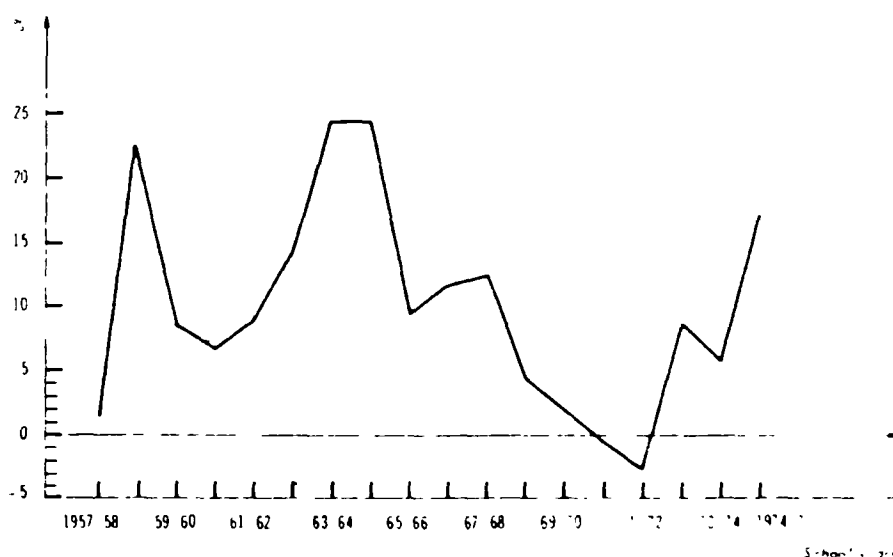
The problem was particularly in those countries such as France and the Federal German Republic where successful final school leaving examinations led to a university entrance. Greek universities grew at an annual rate of 9.9 per cent for the period 1956/57 to 1977/75 (Table 1) (93).

A closer look at the fluctuations of the annual growth rates over the former period is interesting according to Diagram IV (94).

---

Diagram IV

Annual Growth Rate of Total Number of Students  
Registered in the Greek Universities



Source: Soumelis C. "Greece"; in C.E.C.S. Individual Demand for Education, Paris, 1979. p. 277

---

Table 1

**Basic Post-Secondary Educational Statistics**  
from 1956/57 to 1975/76

	University Education							Non-university higher Education							Total post-secondary	
	Candi- dates (1)	Admitted (2)	First year regis- tered (3)	Total regis- tered (4)	Gradu- ates (5)	Candi- dates (6)	Admitted		First year regis- tered (9)	Teacher Colleges (10)	Techni- cal and voca- tional (11)	Total regis- tered (12)	Techni- cal and voca- tional (13)	Graduates Teacher Colleges (14)	Total stu- dents regis- tered (15)	Gradu- ates (16)
							Techni- cal and voca- tional (7)	Teacher Colleges (8)								
1955/56																
1956/57			5 916	17 783	3 338					1 172		2 625		1 500	20 408	4 838
1957/58			5 710	17 954	3 618					1 156		2 363		1 184	20 317	4 802
1958/59			7 407	21 971	3 727					1 168		2 366		1 150	24 337	4 877
1959/60			7 460	23 953	3 910					1 426		2 750		1 277	26 703	5 187
1960/61			8 503	25 658	3 913					1 185		2 644		1 371	28 302	5 284
1961/62			9 164	28 042	4 098					1 379		2 575		1 077	30 617	5 175
1962/63			11 911	31 995	4 330					1 676		3 437		1 515	35 432	5 845
1963/64			15 768	39 824	4 389					1 702		3 587		1 727	43 411	6 116
1964/65			19 867	49 532	4 615					1 880		3 773		1 722	53 305	6 337
1965/66			19 555	54 261	4 624				3 244	1 666	5 840	3 739	566	1 726	63 840	6 915
1966/67			19 290	60 624	5 002				2 690	1 952	5 615	3 967	446	317	70 206	5 765
1967/68			22 614	68 236	6 151				3 051	2 093	6 355	5 202	773	2 609	79 793	9 533
1968/69	32 862	9 304	19 878	71 259	7 773	11 589	655	1 585	3 372	1 649	8 810	3 637	1 337	1 637	83 706	10 747
1969/70	36 654	8 957	19 489	72 616	7 983	14 231	650	1 680	3 729	1 793	9 324	3 565	1 760	1 225	85 505	10 968
1970/71	38 580	10 581	19 941	72 269	8 524	15 140	744	1 923	3 845	1 945	9 578	3 929	1 708	1 342	85 776	11 574
1971/72	37 054	10 840	19 589	70 161	11 482	10 946	791	1 713	3 892	1 987	10 653	4 187	2 067	1 579	85 001	15 128
1972/73	38 866	11 822	19 554	76 035	13 996	9 835	712	1 684	3 864	1 974	10 995	4 279	2 074	1 643	91 309	17 713
1973/74	47 795	13 290	22 536	80 041	13 049	7 141	3 986	1 996	5 199	2 250	12 528	4 562	2 250	1 712	97 131	17 011
1974/75	55 484	14 430	28 570	92 824	14 574	8 609	4 501	1 550		2 312		4 840		2 075		
1975/76	66 113	14 385				28 699	4 450	1 120								

Source: National Statistical Yearbook: Statistics of Education, from 1956-57 to 1975-76,  
National Statistical Service of Greece, Athens.

During the period 1956-1964 there is a continuous increase in the total number of university students whereas during the period 1964-1972 there is an almost continuous decrease in the former number despite the establishment of new universities in Patras, Ioannina and Thrace followed by the University of Crete in 1977.

The growth of the first period can be explained by the effort of the government to reform higher education: a new university - the University of Patras, was established; tuition fees were removed; and emphasis was placed on engineering and natural sciences (95).

Furthermore, the following drop can<sup>be</sup> partly explained by the government's effort to balance the increase over the last years and partly by the government's reluctance to contribute to the modernisation and democratisation of Greek universities. Generally speaking, the demand for more higher education has been the major pressure creating issues of policy in most countries and indeed the expansion of universities has created various problems. National policies - solutions to expand higher education have been adopted everywhere.

According to Holmes (96) there were two obvious models from which national policies could choose. The first model represents horizontal differentiation policy and divides higher education in to two stages - the first stage is a continuation of general education in colleges of education whereas the second stage offers a short cycle higher education in universities. What is characteristic in this model is the concurrent educational studies in Colleges of Education and Universities (97).

The second model represents vertical differentiation

which is characterised by a massive expansion of universities in order to absorb all the qualified applicants. According to this comprehensive pattern all teachers complete their secondary education and are brought together in the same higher education institutions. Their general, academic and professional education is of similar standards and all get the first university degree.

The unified model has been developed by the United States of America and all the other countries which have been influenced by the American education system.

The issue was relevant to teacher education in Greece because it was necessary to set up a new and appropriate system of their training.

But, although during the Post War Two period the re-organisation of teacher training has often been discussed, very little had been done about their education as a whole.

In 1980, in Paris, the Greek Delegation in the answer about the under-developed teacher education in Greece (pre-service and in-service) posed by the O.E.C.D. examiners (98), accepted that the former issue had been the object of very wide-ranging study and discussion. The main concern of the Government was to extend the course of study for kindergarten teachers, primary school teachers and teachers involved in special education and to set up a Pedagogical University only "when all the requisite conditions for its approval and practical application had been met..."

Undoubtedly by extending the duration of the course to four years and by the establishment of the new institution for teachers a step forward could be made in the establishment of the new professional identity of teachers. But it did not.

(2a) The Demand for Teachers

The existing demand for teachers is an obvious consideration in the size of the individual institutions and the preparation of teachers.

According to W. Taylor, there are seven factors that influence demand and supply, (99)

- (1) The system's commitment to education.
- (2) The birth rate.
- (3) Retention rates and voluntary take-up.
- (4) The current teacher stock and the flow of teachers through the educational system.
- (5) Staff-student ratios.
- (6) The supply of suitably qualified candidates.
- (7) The economic context.

All these factors must be seen together because obviously they give rise to debates in teacher education.

In Greece, the demand for teachers stimulated mainly the number and the size of schools for kindergarten teachers.

The serious shortage of suitable qualified pre-primary school teachers during the period 1956-1960 inevitably was the chief cause for the establishment of four schools for kindergarten teachers attached to the Pedagogical Academies of Thessaloniki, Florina, Ioannina and Alexandroupoli. They provided one-year short course training. During the same period the Didaskalio Nipiagogon Kalitheas was the only school for kindergarten teachers which offered two year courses of study and was organised on a similar basis as the Pedagogical Academies.

The one-year short training courses have been abolished since 1960 but appeared again in the period 1967-1974.



In the meantime, by the beginning of the seventies, three Schools for Kindergarten Teachers were established. Their aims, organisation and administration were very similar to those of Pedagogical Academies thus facilitating the planning of pre-primary teacher supply (100).

(3a) The Application of New Knowledge-content Revision

The rapid growth and the new distribution of knowledge naturally played its part in the movement for reform. Dissatisfaction with the personal and professional education of teachers was given greater emphasis and simultaneously there were reforms in primary levels of education and the introduction of new training courses seemed to be inevitable (101).

The demand for a broadened knowledge base of teacher education must be analysed in relation to the professional preparation of teachers in the light of recent advances in educational theory, teaching techniques and the new concepts of psychology, sociology, philosophy, history and other humanistic and social science disciplines.

Their application in the sphere of education should be expressed in the aims, content and structure of teacher education if the development of educational theory must be the result from the growing contact of pedagogy with other scientific disciplines (102).

In those countries concerned with the reform of teacher education, great thought has been given in recent years to ways in which teachers' initial courses deal with adequately intellectual and professional stature in terms of current developments or educational and scientific knowledge.

Greece is one of the high centralised countries where

the teaching subjects are laid down with specifications by the Ministry of Education for those who teach the teachers. Consequently various innovations in teacher education, teaching methods and the application of new knowledge implies content revision on the whole and restricts personal initiatives. It is important to mention that the teaching syllabuses in teacher training institutions have been modified very little since the post-war period. A natural consequence of this stability was that pre-service and in-service teacher education did not keep pace either with the growth of knowledge or with the aspirations towards the new social and personal objectives. As has been mentioned above, this can be explained partly by the findings of F.S. Gillis - a student of Isaac Kandel - who undertook research on the relationship between the form of administration and curriculum innovations. He concluded that changes in the curriculum in centralised systems could not be introduced quickly but only slowly.

Whilst admitting the former view the underdevelopment of teacher education curriculum in Greece can be partly explained by the reluctance of the authorities in power because indeed liberalisation of the curriculum and teaching methodology are very ambitious changes in real terms and require undoubtedly changes of ministry attitudes.

But the application of new knowledge in pre-service and in-service teacher education was a continuing demand by the teachers themselves who were aware of their inadequate training by the students who expressed their dissatisfaction by abstentions from the lectures, and by the Teachers' Union whose concern was to help teachers to extend their experience, to enlarge their knowledge and to deepen their insight in social matters.

(4a) The Change of Role in the Teaching Profession

It became evident that during the period of rapid social and technological change teachers began to work in a situation markedly different from the previous generations.

They were called upon to play a more central role in society, not only as transmitters of the new knowledge, but as constructors of social attitudes and personal maturity of young children.

W. Taylor, in his Research and Reform in Teacher Education (1978), suggested five aspects of the teacher's role which are concerned with interest in recent years (103).

- (1) The teacher as a motivator of students' learning.
- (2) The teacher as a moral and political agent.
- (3) The teacher as innovator.
- (4) The cooperative role of the teacher.
- (5) The teacher as an agent of social and educational equality.

The analysis of changes which affect the teachers' role made by D.E.C.D. and based on a number of case-studies of innovations suggested that there were two principal conditions which would enable the teacher to fulfil the new role (104).

- (i) Initial and continuing training of teachers - new trends and concepts;
- (ii) New patterns of teacher tasks and their implications.

In considering the preparation of the teacher for the new role, reform in teacher education should take into account,

- (a) the resistance of teachers to innovations partly derives from their own training. It is necessary to organise initial and continuous training to help

teachers to become conscious of the new role they must play.

- (b) Priorities should be given to those who train teachers and those responsible for educational administration.
- (c) The new role created new attitudes, new capabilities and new career expectations, thus it is necessary to involve changes in the legal status of the personnel through a new policy (105).

Certainly changes in the teachers' role should be analysed in relation to the undergoing changes of the school system.

In Greece structural changes in the school system had always priorities in reform while the teachers' role was neglected and teacher training was considered in isolation with the social implication of education.

There should be little doubt if this kind of reform disturbed any of the general principles which governed the Greek education system until the eighties, especially when the education of teachers did not allow them to stimulate the reform and to play a decisive role in its success. From several reports and articles it seems that the formal organic structure of the Greek primary school, and the traditional teaching methods were closely related with the conservative character of the teaching system followed by Pedagogical Academies (106).

But the changing concept of the teachers' role, as reflected from the above, means that the standards of Pedagogical Academies were seriously inadequate.

The teachers of the new age must play a certain role in the process of social reconstruction, to participate in the formation and administration of educational policy and to organise

to further their own security and the protection of educational freedom.

The education of teachers in Greece will be to meet the former needs if these become the main concern of teachers' colleges.

This approach requires radical changes not only in the general policy for schools, teacher training, personnel but more precisely in the norms of the social contract as they are defined in the structure of state education.

(5a) The Impact of Research in Teacher Education

Research in teacher education constitutes a body of knowledge that is growing and changing especially in the last twenty years.

However, despite the evidence of thousands of research reports, journal articles, books, monographs and theses, there is no genuine and thorough evaluation of teacher education. According to A. Yates (107) this is because on the one hand there is not sufficient recognition of the role of teacher education in the development of the educational process and on the other hand the failure to identify early the theoretical problems for research in teacher education. Taylor (1969b), has argued that there are three main links between teacher and educational research (108). First, there are studies relevant to teacher education which should be of direct concern to teacher training, such as sociological, psychological studies and studies of the learning process and the productivity of teaching. Second, studies undertaken by individuals or groups engaged in teacher training institutions. Unfortunately, little influential research has been undertaken in European countries or teacher educators as a specialist group within the teaching profession.

Third, studies on the process of teacher education and the determination of policy.

Peck and Tucker (1971, 1973) identified six major themes in their review of studies in teacher education during the period 1955-1971 (109). These are,

- (1) a system approach to teacher education improves its effectiveness;
- (2) teacher educators should serve as role models for teacher candidates and in-service teachers adopting desired styles of teaching behaviour;
- (3) direct involvement in field-based experiences, sensitivity, laboratories, and simulation is more likely to produce desired teacher behaviour;
- (4) it is possible to induce self-initiation using a variety of techniques;
- (5) conventional methods of teacher education have both intended and unintended effects;
- (6) the use of pupil-gain measure as the criterion for teacher education effectiveness.

On the whole the majority of studies on teacher education identify some of the characteristics of training that can modify the short-term behaviour of teachers and might influence the pupil immediately.

Specific studies to investigate what elements of teacher education programmes have a long-range impact on teacher effectiveness are less successful.

Although there has been in recent years a remarkable increase in the quantity of research studies related to teacher education they have not had a great impact on practice and the amount of innovation that can be expected in teachers' preparation is limited. This may be partly due to the lack of resources for

for coordinated approaches and also due to the many interests on the decision-making process.

Despite doing that, research on teacher education has stimulated the urgent need for radical changes in the teaching profession and not only small innovations. Furthermore, the research activities of international and European based inter-governmental organisations through a number of conferences, meetings and reports, fostered initiatives in teacher education and called for their implications.

Unesco organised many important conferences on the subject of teachers,

- in 1966 in Paris, the Special Intergovernmental Conference on the Status of Teachers;
- in 1967 in Paris, the Expert Committee on Teacher Education;
- in 1968 in Prague, the International Conference on Further Education of Teachers;
- in 1969 in Hamburg, the International Conference on Current Problems of Teacher Education, and in 1975 in Geneva, the International Conference about the Changing Role of the Teacher and the Effect on In-service Training and on Preparation for the Profession.

At all these conferences it has been stated frequently that teacher education represents complex circumstances and theoretical issues which must change as the goals and objectives of the education profession in general change.

The O.E.C.D. studies have tended to be concerned mainly with structural and political issues. In 1974 it sponsored a meeting on teacher policies relevant to their training,

recruitment and deployment.

The Council of Europe paid attention to policies about continuing education for teachers, their relation to pre-service training and related problems from 21 member countries.

In Greece, the Mediterranean Regional Project (110) under the sponsorship of the O.E.C.D. in the middle sixties represents the major attempt to assess the educational needs and resources in relation to the economic and social development of the country (it was published in 1965).

During the late seventies the O.E.C.D. published another report on the educational reforms of the period 1975. The document was the first comprehensive examination of current educational policies and practice in Greece and a significant contribution to further policy innovation.

Although such studies can contribute little to fundamental research, they are useful in practical questions and may provide the basis for future projects in different aspects of teacher education in individual countries as well as in Greece.

(b) Policy Solutions

(1b) The Educational Reform of 1964

As a result of the profound changes and the pressing needs that were mentioned above, teacher education in Greece had become a field in which old traditions should be overcome and new solutions sought.

The implemented changes in the field of teacher education during the post-war period was part of the reform in the school system which resulted from the social and political changes in the countries.

Undoubtedly the situations differed from each other but



all had a common end, to improve the quality of pre-primary, primary and secondary school teachers. The Greek post-war reform was not the natural development from what Greece had achieved but again the result of the administrative change.

It was the policy-making process of 1964-65, initiated by the Centre Union Government which had the intention to resolve the educational problem.

The educational reform of this period is marked by important innovations. These were not only expressed in the new principles and ideas which on the one hand had to bring the school closer to Greek society and economy and on the other hand to make education relevant to the present reality.

Generally speaking the policy was to be consonant with the concerns of freedom, quality and justice (the goals of a liberal democratic policy) and the requirements of economic efficiency (111).

Characteristically the policy included,

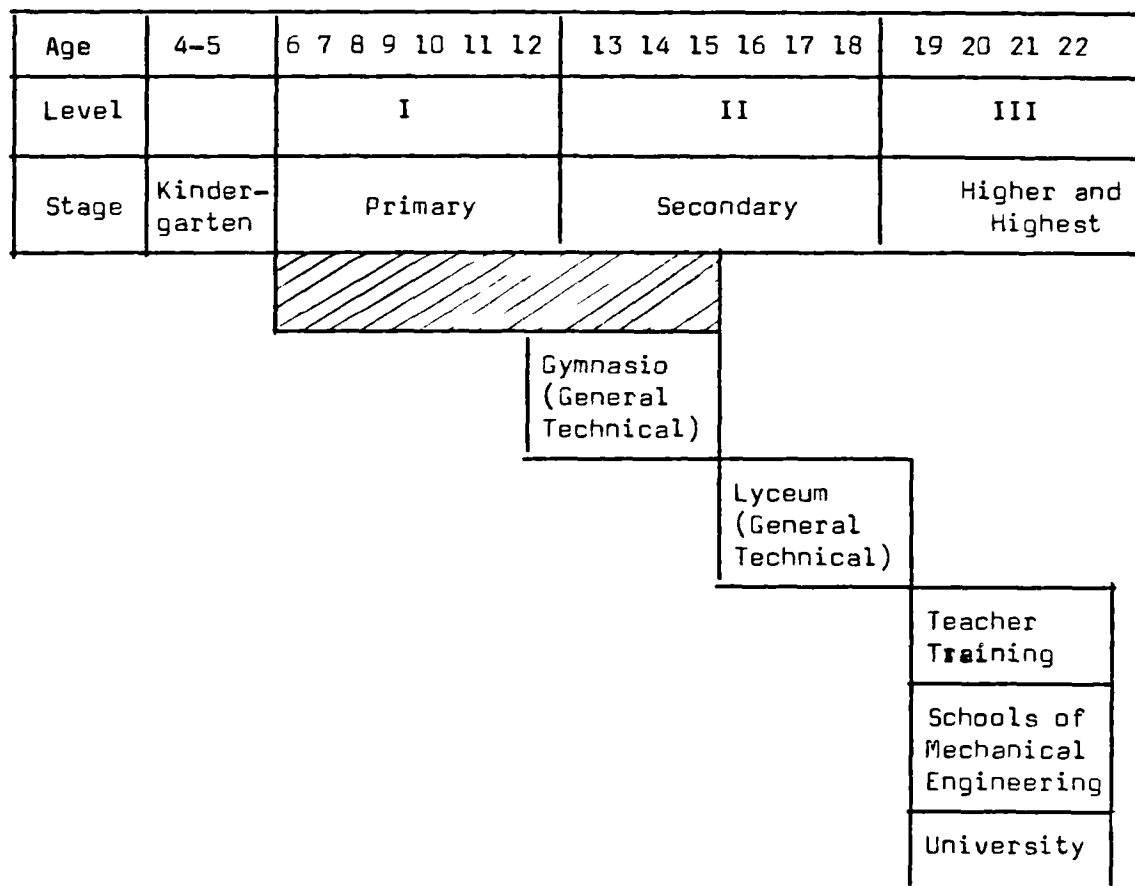
- (a) free education at all levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher education).
- (b) Nine years compulsory education.
- (c) Access to secondary education without examination.
- (d) Division of secondary education into three years Gymnasia (non-selective) and three years Lyceum (selective).
- (e) The establishment of the Academic Certificate which was to be at the same level with the French Baccalaureat and the German Abitur
- (f) The teacher training colleges (Pedagogical Academies) came under non-university higher education and offered three years' courses of study instead of the existing

two years.

Diagram V (112) shows the general structure of the educational system.

Diagram V

The Structure of the Greek Educational System  
with the Educational Reform of 1964



= Compulsory Education

The intention of the liberal government in the policy process of 1963-64 was to upgrade gradually the teacher training institutions to university status - at the beginning by the introduction of the third year of study and later on one year more than this placing them effectively in fourth-stage institutions similar to universities.

The proposed policy change had been highly criticised by the traditional group of Greek education because in their opinion,

- (i) the reform undermined the foundations of the Greek-Christian civilisation;
- (ii) the study of the ancient Greek literature through modern Greek interpreted edition was to take them away from the schools;
- (iii) the introduction of popular language (demotiki) in schools would delay the progress of education;

Representative of these criticisms was the Philosophical School of the University of Athens which claimed that the reform proposals were "against the interest of national education and the Greek paideias (113).

Finally, this policy change was abolished by the Dictatorship and when the latter fell in 1974, a new period of major educational reform was started.

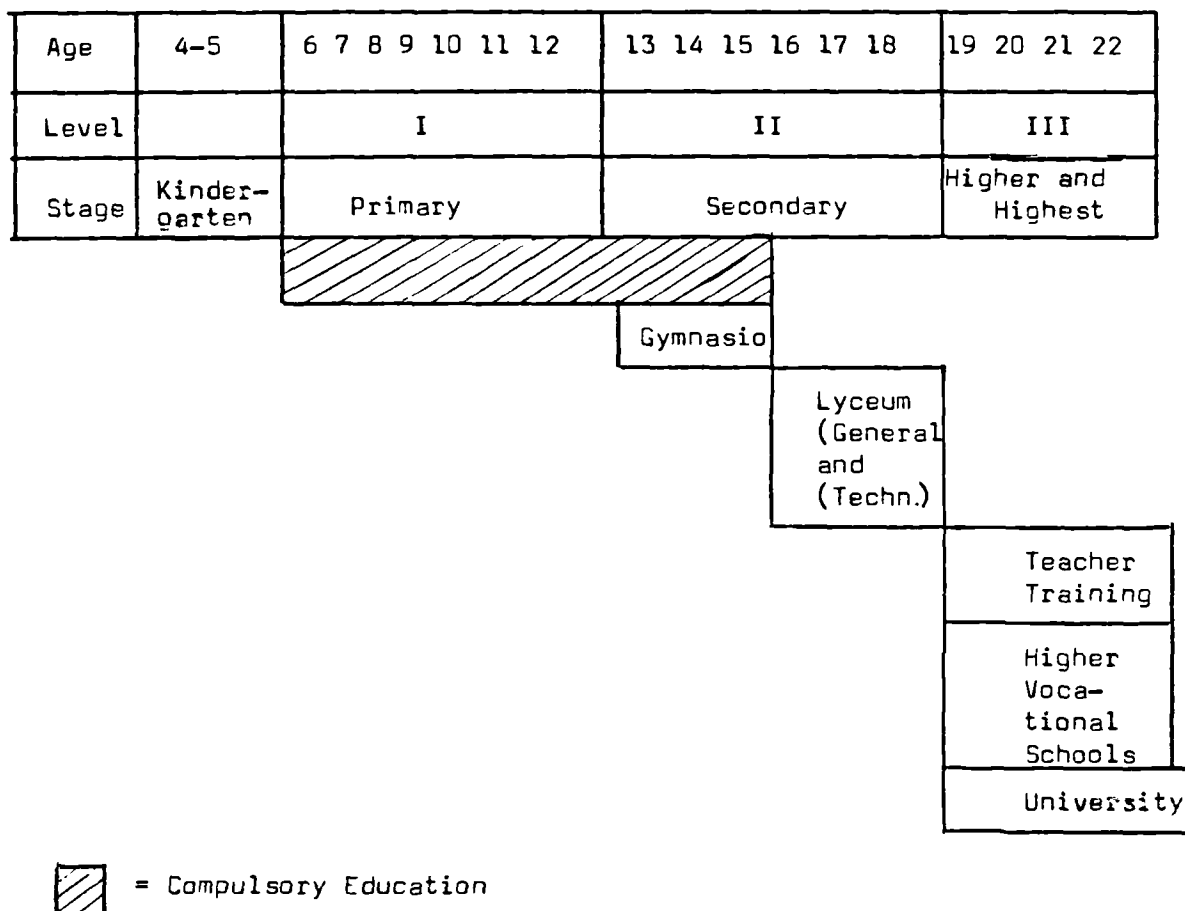
(2b) The Educational Reform of 1976

The period after the fall of the dictatorship started with the political elections when the New Democracy political party came into power, the introduction of the Constitution of 1975 and the establishment of KEME (Centre of Educational Studies and Further Education). Moreover there was a number of Laws which introduced changes in the educational system. Among them

the most important were the Law 309/1976 on "the organisation and administration of general education" and the Law 576/1977 on "the technical and vocational education (Diagram VI) (114)

Diagram VI

The Structure of the Greek Educational System  
with the Educational Reform of 1976



The organisational structures of general education consisted of

- (a) six years primary school followed by,
- (b) three years compulsory unselected Gymnasio followed by,
- (c) three years highly selective General Lyceum.

In addition the Law introduced the "neohellenic" language as the language of instruction at all levels of schooling and the

curriculum included elements of the democratic organisation of the state, technological subjects and educational and vocational orientation.

Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Kindergarten Teachers were a constituent part of the higher education – as they had been since 1933 – and they witnessed minor changes in the curriculum. In fact, the major thrust of the reform brought changes only in primary and secondary education.

(3b) The Educational Reform of the Period 1981-1985

Since PASOK took office in Greece, after the political elections of 1981, a series of reform proposals have been introduced in all levels of education.

The main features of the reforms can be summarised as follows:


- (a) Demotiki language is introduced as the official language of the State;
  - (b) the establishment of nonotoniko system in the written language;
  - (c) reorganisation of the administrative system in primary, secondary and technical-vocational education (Law 1232/1982);
  - (d) the abolishment of the inspectors in primary, secondary and technical-vocational education and the introduction of "educational counsellors" with different roles and functions.
  - (e) the reorganisation in terms of structure and function of the highest educational institutions (Law 1268/1982)
- Among the provision of this Law was the introduction of Pedagogical departments of education;

- (f) The abolishment of KATEE and the creation of T.E.I.  
(Technological Educational Institution) (Law 1404/83)
- (g) Introduction of new curricula and content, new textbooks  
in first and second level of education.
- (h) The reform of primary and secondary education in terms  
of structure and function (Law 1566 /85).

According to this reform the institutional structure of the  
educational system is shown in Diagram VII (115).

Diagram VII

The Structure of the Greek Educational System  
with the Educational Reforms of 1982-1985

Age	4-5	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16 17 18	19 20 21 22
Level		I	II	III
Stage	kinder- garten	Primary	Secondary	higher and highest
				
			Gymnasio	
			General Lyceum	
			Technical Vocational Lyceum	
			Policladik Lyceum	
				Higher and Highest
				University



= Compulsory Education

A. Bouzakis comments,

"The innovative interventions in the Greek education during the period '81 '85 consist of the most completed educational reform after the liberation and cover the total of the external and internal characteristics.

"The educational reforms of this period fulfil a double aim: on the one side complete the civic-democratic reform, which was waiting from the beginning of our century, thus satisfying the demands of the educational Demotikismos and on the other side they proceed to institutional changes which have inside a changing - socialistic dynamics."

For pre-primary and primary school teachers this period was very important. In particular it was by the introduction of Law 1268/1982, which offered on the one hand immediate solutions to the problems of teacher education and on the other hand several possibilities for the teaching profession to create its own professional educational basis. Indeed, behind the introduction of Pedagogical University Departments, the general desire of the government was to bring together the two historical systems of teacher education.

A further analysis based upon the assumptions of the liberal model of the teaching profession suggests that the new system of teacher education not only will bridge the dichotomies inherent in European patterns but its implications will ensure professional autonomy and responsibility in the teaching profession.

Development in this direction undoubtedly will lead teacher education in Greece to meet some of the criteria of the teaching profession.

Such procedures depend on the organisation and consolidation of the members of the teaching profession, on the degree of integration of the educational systems on the level of educational sciences and the number of highly qualified university

level experts on education.

We have examined in this chapter the changing concept of the teachers prototype in ancient and modern Greece and we attempted to identify the persisting traditional beliefs and values which are influencing contemporary attitudes towards the role and status of pre-primary and primary school teachers. Furthermore, the analysis of the various kinds of institutional structure of teacher education from the liberation until today revealed clearly how these traditional beliefs used to be consistent with the traditional European model of teacher education on the basis of which the Greek system has been developed and how reactive were those against any reform-change directed by the progressive intelligentsia and the liberal political parties.

The study of teacher education under the various socio-economic and political pressures which emerged since the 1960s showed that the most satisfactory solution to the problem was that proposed by the 1982 Law.

In actuality, much of the problem had to do with the demand for increased social prestige and professional status. For this reason, the next chapter will attempt to analyse the proposed changes in the light of teachers' demands for professionalisation.



### References - Chapter II

- (1) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1981, p.83.
- (2) Fragos, C., "Epikera themata pedeias," Cutenberg, Pedagogiki seira, Athens, 1986, p. 30
- (3) Bouzakis, S., "Neoelliniki Ekpedefsi", Cutenberg, Pedagogiki seira, Athens, 1986, p. 41.
- (4) Jarman, L.T., "Landmarks in the History of Education" English Education as Part of the European Tradition, Ed. by W.Clowes and Sons, Ltd., London, Great Britain, 1966, p. 20.
- (5) The Greek expression of arete means the end in each practice either in referring to the arts, philosophy or politics.  
During the period of the polis-city for Sparta arete was to serve and die for the fatherland while for Athens it was the integrity and the distinguished leadership of the good citizen. Plato and Isocrates' conception of areta meant the Pedeia of a man. Later, under the Macedonians areta became the excellence of a man's heart and mind.  
From Castle, B.C., The Teacher, Oxford University Press, 1971, p. 20.
- (6) Howie, G., "The Teacher in Classical Greece and Rome", in The Yearbook of Education: The Education and Training of Teachers, University of London Institute of Education 1963, p. 4.
- (7) Castle, B.C., The Teacher, Oxford University Press, 1971, p. 23.
- (8) Howie, G., "The Teacher in Classical Greece and Rome" in The Yearbook of Education, University of London Institute of Education, London, 1963, p. 43.
- (9) Barnard, A., Greek Civilisation, London, 1970, pp. 128-129.
- (10) Howie, G., "The Teacher in Classical Greece and Rome" in The Yearbook of Education, University of London Institute of Education, London, 1963, p. 43.
- (11) Ibid., p. 49.
- (12) Jarman, L.T., "Landmarks in the History of Education" op.cit., p. 18.
- (13) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, London, 1981, p. 137.
- (14) Jarman, L.T., "Landmarks in the History of Education" op.cit., pp. 12-13.

- (15) Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in a Changing Society" in The Yearbook of Education, University of London Institute of Education, London, 1963, p. 8.
- (16) Howie, G., "The Teacher in Classical Greece and Rome" in The Yearbook of Education, University of London Institute of Education, London, 1963, p. 47.
- (17) Castle, B.C., The Teacher, Oxford University Press, 1971, p. 33.
- (18) Ibid., p. 26.
- (19) Marrow, H.J., A History of Education in Antiquity 1956, p. 49.
- (20) Ibid., p. 51.
- (21) Dimaras, A., A Metarrithmisi pou den egine, A. volume ed. Ermes, Athens, 1983, p. 24.
- (22) Bouzakis, S., Neoelleniki Ekpedefsi, op.cit., p. 39.
- (23) Chatzistefanidis, Th., Istoria tis Neoellenikis Ekpedefsis (1821-1986), Papadimas, D., Athens, 1986, p. 60.
- (24) Holmes, B., International Handbook of Education Systems S. Wiley and Sons, London, 1983, p. 367.
- (25) Chatzistefanidis, Th., Istoria tis Neoellinikis Ekpedefsis, op.cit., p. 37.
- (26) Ibid., p. 226.
- (27) The educational system of Herbert was accepted officially by the Greek state with the decree of September 3rd 1880 and influenced the Greek education until 1930. According to the Greek educationist Georgouli, "Since 1930 the Greek educationists started to move away from Herbertian pedagogiks".  
Georgoulis, K., General Didactic, Athens, 1972, p. 25.
- (28) Chatzistefanidis, Th., op.cit., p. 190.
- (29) Castle, B.E., The Teacher, p. 139.
- (30) Exarchopoulos, N., Eisagogi is tin Pedagogikin, B. Volume, 5th edition, Athens, 1950, pp. 169-170.
- (31) The "Language Question" is basic to some understanding of modern Greece. By the first decade of the nineteenth century two trends are shaped having their common aims the development of education. The first trend, namely, "demotikismos" recognised the importance of the living language of the Greek people called "demotiki".  
They probably had been influenced by the European

enlightenment and claimed that "Demotiki" was the natural development from the "Common Greek" of Alexander's empire. Moreover they believed that Hellenism could be reanimated through the demotic language which in reality was the language of the common speech, and creative writing. The followers of the second movement believed that Hellenism would survive only through the Katharevousa in the mouths of the people through schools. Katharevousa became the official language of modern Greece and is the conservative "pure" form of the ancient Greek language.

- (32) Derbisis, S., Istoria tis neoellinikis Ekpedefsisis ke Sychrono Ekpedeftiko sistima, Thessaloniki, 1985, p. 57.
- (33) Ibid., pp. 58-59.
- (34) Chatzistefanidis, Th., op.cit., p. 139.
- (35) Ibid., p. 141.
- (36) Dewey, J., "My Pedagogic Creed" in Garford, E.A., John Dewey, Selected, p. 23, Chicago, 1894.
- (37) Woodring, P., "The development of Teacher Education" in The seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society, for the Study of Education, Chicago, 1975, p. 11.
- (38) Castle, B.E., The Teacher, p. 177.
- (39) Derbisis, S., op.cit., p. 59.
- (40) Ibid.
- (41) Chatzistefanidis, Th. op.cit., p. 36.
- (42) Derbisis, S., op.cit., p. 26.
- (43) Fragos, C., op.cit., p. 40.
- (44) Marklund, S., "Towards a New Teacher Professionalism" in Lomax, E.D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, Wiley, J. and Sons, London, 1973 p. 14.
- (45) Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in England and Wales: A Comparative View" in Lomax, E.D., The Education of Teachers in Britain, Wiley, J. and Sons, London, 1973, p. 19.
- (46) Holmes, B., "The Future of Teacher Education in England and Wales: A Comparative View" in Education for Teaching, No. 85, Summer 1971, p. 17.
- (47) Ross, A., "The Development of Teacher Education in Colleges of Education" in Lomax, E.D., The Education of Teachers in Britain, Wiley, J., and Sons, London, 1973, p. 135.

- (48) Mallinson, V., The Western European Idea in Education, Pergamon Press, London, 1980, p. 46.
- (49) Holmes, B., "Organisation of Teacher Training" in The Yearbook of Education 1963: Education and Training of Teachers, Evans Bros., London, 1963, pp. 124-126.
- (50) Massialas, G.B., The Educational System of Greece, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1981, p.1.
- (51) Source: Bouzakis, S., op.cit., p. 37.
- (52) The first decree on 6th/7th February 1834 was about the organisation of primary schools.  
The second on 31st December 1836 was about the organisation of secondary schools and the third on 14th April 1837 was about the establishment of the University.
- (53) Dimaras, A., op.cit., pp. 45-50, Vol.A.
- (54) Ibid., p. 45.
- (55) Ibid., Vol. A. pp. 177-190
- (56) Milonas, Th., H anaporaqogi ton Kinonikon taxeon meso ton scholikon mechanismon, Ed. Gregoris, Athens, 1982, p. 22.
- (57) Dimaras, op.cit., Vol. A. p. 49.
- (58) Ibid.
- (59) Pirgiotakis, G., Archise sosta to Ekpedefitiko Sistima Epistimoniko Vema, ADE, Vol. 2, Year 29, p. 20. 1924.
- (60) Milonas, Th., op.cit. p.20.
- (61) Ibid., p. 22.
- (62) Holmes, B., Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 24.
- (63) Milonas, Th., op.cit., p. 30.
- (64) The first kindergarten training institution established by the A. Laskaridou. She was the first who introduced the concept of nursery education in Greece apparently influenced by the Froebelian ideas.  
Kiriazopoulou-Valinaki, P., Nipiagogiki, Blassi Brothers Athens, 1977, p. 250.
- (65) Bouzakis, S., op.cit., p. 67.
- (66) Chatzistefandis, Th., op.cit., p. 263.
- (67) Source: S. Bouzakis, op.cit., p. 65.
- (68) Fragoudaki, A., Ekpedefitiki metarrithmisi ke phileleftheroi dianooomenoi, Kedros, Athens, 1978, p. 35.
- (69) Dimaras, A., op.cit., pp. 125-126, Vol. B.

- (70) Ibid., Vol.8., p. 98.
- (71) Glinos, D., O skopos tis Pedagogikis Akademias, Athens, 1924, p. 3.
- (72) Dimaras, A., op.cit., Vol.8.
- (73) Bouzakis, S., op.cit., pp. 74-88, .
- (74) Ibid., pp. 83-84.
- (75) Tsolakis, G., Educational and Psychological Interactions, Department of Educational and Psychological Research, Lund University, 1981, p. 12.
- (76) Herder, Megali Pedagogiki Enkiklopedia ton Ellinikon grammaton, Vol. 4 os, p. 378-379. 1968
- (77) Dimaras, A., op.cit., Vol. 8. pp. 178-190.
- (78) Andreou, A., "H Ekpedefsi ton daskalon ke Nipiagogoi stin chora mas", article in Sichrono Nepiagogio, ed. Dipticho, 1980, p. 203.
- (79) Lefas, Ch., Istoria tis Ekpedefsis, Athens, 1942, pp. 251-252.
- (80) Palaiologos, G ., Enkiklopedia Pyrsos, Athens, Vol.8,1930, p.308
- (81) Omospondia Litourgon Mesia Ekpedefseos, Deltio No. 83-84, September-October 1983. Report from the Proceedings of the General Assembly, 18, p. 14.
- (82) Andreou, A., op.cit., pp. 204-205.
- (83) Dimaras, A., "Greek Education: A Story of Frustrated Reform" in Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, Vol. VIII, 1981, p. 24.
- (84) Holmes, B., Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965.
- (85) Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in a Changing World", in The Yearbook of Education, London, 1963, p.1.
- (86) Kandel, I., Evans, N., Subjes, A., Read, M., "The Reform of Education", in The Yearbook of Education, London, 1952, Evans Bros., p. 5.
- (87) Bouzakis, S., op.cit., p. 90.
- (88) Dimaras, A., H metarrithmisi pou den engine, Kedros, Athens, 1978, Vol.8, p. v8.
- (89) Ibid., p. 225.
- (90) Ibid., p . 229-233.

- (91) Mallinson, V., "Trends in Teacher Education", Report of a Conference held at the University of Reading, 12-15 September 1969, Comparative Education Society of Europe, British Section.
- (92) Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I and II, Unesco, and IAU, Paris, 1965.
- (93) Soumelis, C., "Greece", in O.E.C.D., Individual Demand for Education, Paris, 1979, pp. 274-277.
- (94) Source: Ibid., p. 277.
- (95) Gavroglu, K., "Certain features of Higher Education in Greece and the Failure of the attempts to Reform" in the Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, Vol. VIII, 1981, pp. 95-108.
- (96) Helmes, B., "Universities, Higher Education and Society" in The World Yearbook of Education 1971/72, Evans Bros., London, 1971, pp. 11-12.
- (97) Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in England and Wales: A Comparative View", in Lomax, D., The Education of Teachers in Britain, London, Wiley, J. and Sons Ltd., 1973, p. 17.
- (98) O.E.C.D., Review of National Policies for Education: Greece, Paris, 1982, p. 73.
- (99) Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, Windsor, 1978, pp. 25-38.
- (100) Vigopoulos, E., "Η Εκπαιδευτική των δασκάλων στην Ελλάδα τα τελευταία πενήντα χρόνια" in Journal of Synchroni Neopiagogia, Athens, 1982, p. 220.
- (101) Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, 1978, p. 89.
- (102) Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, Report of a Meeting of International Experts, Unesco, Hamburg, 1972, p. 85.
- (103) Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, Windsor, 1978, pp. 49-84.
- (104) O.E.C.D., New Patterns of Teacher Education and Tasks: General Analysis, Paris, 1974, pp. 3-4.
- (105) Reguzzoni, M., "European Innovations in Teachers' In-service Training", in Lomax, D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, J. Wiley and Sons, Ltd., London, 1973, p. 167.
- (106) Fragoudaki, A., "Σκεψισγία του ρόλου και της εργας των εκπαιδευτικών" in Journal Synchroni Ekpedefsi, No. 27, March-April, 1986, Athens, p. 51.

- (107) Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, Report of a Meeting of International Experts, Unesco, Hamburg, 1970, p. 126.
- (108) Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, Windsor, 1978, p. 14.
- (109) Spodek, B., Saracho, O., "The Preparation and Certification of Early Childhood Personnel" in Spodek, B., Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education, The Free Press, New York, 1982, p. 415.
- (110) O.E.C.D., The Mediterranean Regional Project - Greece, Paris, 1965, p. 13.
- (111) O.E.C.D., Educational Policy and Planning: Educational Reform Policies in Greece, Paris, 1980, p. 13.
- (112) Source: S. Bouzakis, op.cit., p. 102.
- (113) Chatzistefanidis, Th., op.cit., pp. 302-303.
- (114) Source: S. Bouzakis, p. 114.
- (115) Source: S. Bouzakis, op.cit., p. 126.
- (116) Ibid., p. 144.

### Chapter III

#### THE CONTEXT OF THE 1982 LAW IN GREECE

##### SECTION I:

##### TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

##### 3.1.1 The Demand for Professionalisation

This chapter is concerned to analyse the kind of changes in the status of pre-primary and primary school teachers that the 1982 Law entailed.

According to this Law "the department constitutes the basic functional academic unit and covers the field of knowledge of a single discipline..." (1), and "..... supply the means necessary to secure their (persons) education to pursue scientific and professional careers". (2).

In line with this, the introduction of University Pedagogical Departments have been seen essentially as offering a chance to ensure the enhancement of teachers' status to professional level.

Teachers' desire to gain the social status and prestige of the profession was related to the fact that, "the scientific identity of the graduate determines... the type of his professional identity" (3), thus "the struggles of teachers' organised union aimed not just for the 4 year training but for the university education which automatically offers a scientific identity to the graduate" (4).

This professional scientific identity was non-existent before the 1982 Law because teacher training colleges were mainly vocational institutions. In this sense, the professional identity of the graduates of the Pedagogical University Departments constitutes an important feature which will differentiate them from the graduates of the training colleges and will improve teachers'



social status and prestige.

Besides, the demand for this professional identity underlied many statements demanding the reform such as,

"The teachers through their elected leadership and the students of Pedagogical Academies ask for equal opportunities for scientific education with the scientists of other professions" (5) and

"The general education... should be offered by equal ... scientific prepared educationists" (6) or

"Pre-primary and primary school teachers are fighting for many years for their education in the Universities of our country... There are scientists with 5 or 6 years education and their subjects are either the plants, the animals, the concrete or the archives of an office.

"The primary and pre-primary school teachers who are dealing with the education of the children, do they not need scientific preparation within the universities?" (7).

The view that primary school teachers should have the characteristics of a profession is supported by some international agencies' statements formed a long time ago. Indeed, in the Unesco's programme of work the theme of improving the status of all teachers (primary and secondary) in order to contribute to the progress of education and to the development of man and society, has been analysed thoroughly.

Thus, in 1966, the Special Inter-Governmental Conference convened by UNESCO, taking into account the observations received from states and teachers' organisations, presented a draft Recommendation drawn up by a joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts.

The purpose of the Conference was to introduce a generally accepted instrument which could be used as a basis for planning reforms and when applied to teaching staff in all countries could establish common standards and measures for the teaching profession.

The presented draft of Recommendation was in line with the existing international conventions which are applicable to teachers, the recommendations of Unesco and the International Bureau of Education on the preparation and status of primary and secondary school teachers as well as the Unesco Recommendations concerning Technical and Vocational Education (8).

The status of teachers has been considered in relation to the national setting, with an attempt to establish those balances which are essential to the well being of the community.

Moreover emphasis was placed on moral and professional satisfaction in terms of teachers' recognised role in society, their social status and prestige as well as the opportunity to pursue a professional career. These issues have been emphasised in paragraph 6 which recommended (9),

"Teaching should be regarded as a profession: it is a form of public service which requires of teachers expert knowledge and specialised skills, acquired and maintained through rigorous and continuing study; it calls also for a sense of personal and corporate responsibility for the education and welfare of the pupils in their charge".

The paragraph applies the principle that teaching is a true profession and should not be regarded solely as an occupation.

If, furthermore, we examine the issue in the European Council studies, we see that the idea about professional status of primary school teachers is common. In 1973, the Bristol Symposium, organised at the instigation of the European Council, with main theme innovations in teachers' in-service training.

In trying to relate the consequences of the reform in teacher training with the reinforcement of innovatory attitudes the participants stressed,

"the unification of the teaching profession...; and university training for all those who intend to dedicate themselves to teaching, no matter what type

of school they intend to teach in "(10).

However, these ideas are not shared between the community of educationalists while at the present time teachers for young children are not regarded as true professionals in many countries. For example, Etzioni (11), classifies teaching between the category of "semi-professions" whose members receive short periods of training and thus acquire a less specialised body of knowledge while Balloch (12) argues that the improvement of social status and quality of primary school teachers should be within the context of a new more "open" and "responsive" professional model than the traditional one. Finally, in respect to their level of preparation - which is relevant with the concept of the traditional professional model - Holmes (13) suggested that,

"teacher education should become a separate sector of higher education, much less autonomous than the universities and much more under the control of the government agencies".

In Greece, at present, the reform of teacher education with reference to the 1982 Law, apparently tends to "professionalise" pre-primary and primary teacher education in order to acquire the same characteristics as the other professions, at least those who are relevant with teaching.

Within this context there is a need to describe the essential features of the teaching profession and to establish a framework which will permit the implied changes to be described.

In this way Lieberman's model of the teaching profession will be established to differentiate between the aspects of the teaching profession which have been influenced by the changes involved in the provision of the 1982 Law.

### 3.1.2 The Model of Teaching as a Profession

The policy of teacher education in Greece will be analysed in the light of the following operational questions (14).

- (a) What public service should teachers be performing?
- (b) What kind of institutions offered the knowledge they should possess?
- (c) Who should control the education of teachers?

Behind these questions lies the model of teaching as a profession.

Thus, for the purposes of the analysis the politics of teacher education will be viewed against the concepts of the profession and especially against the criteria Myron Lieberman uses to characterise it.

The use of the model is to indicate the broad characteristics of any profession against which the demands for professional status for teachers can be assessed.

According to Lieberman, the ingredients of a profession include the following eight criteria which are not " foolproof set of specifications" but "a complex set of characteristics" (15) These are:

- (1) A profession performs an essential public service.
- (2) A profession is founded upon a systematic body of knowledge which is based on intellectual principles.
- (3) A profession requires a lengthy period of specialised training.
- (4) A profession has a high degree of autonomy for both the individual practitioners and for the occupational group as a whole.
- (5) An acceptance by the practitioners of personal responsibility for judgements made and acts performed within

the scope of professional autonomy.

- (6) The public service a profession performs is not principally for financial gain.
- (7) A profession has a comprehensive self-governing organisation of practitioners.
- (8) A profession has code of ethics.

What the above criteria mean and to what extent primary school teachers meet these criteria is the main concern of the following discussion.

(1) A profession performs an essential public service

Every government in the world stresses the importance of education for the welfare of children and of society. So at the level of public pronouncements it is widely recognised that education is an essential public service.

(2) A profession is founded upon a systematic body of knowledge which is based on intellectual principles

The point here is that a profession is concerned not only with physical technique in carrying on its work but with the exercise of some skill which has intellectual foundations. It depends to a very high degree upon esoteric knowledge which has intellectual principles.

Lieberman (16) argued that professional work emphasises such intellectual principles as defining problems, searching for relevant data and formulating possible solutions.

Furthermore Hoyle (17) stated that the intellectual principles of teaching include both subject matter and knowledge of educational theory. At the university level access to such knowledge is through the recognised disciplines which is not generally available to the public.

Questions arise whether primary school teachers fulfil

this criteria because of the doubts about what should constitute the distinct form of professional training for teaching at the primary school level. According to Hall, K.R., Hans, N. and Lauwerys, J (18), some professional teachers claim that it is the esoteric skill in methodology and in transmitting learning that classify teaching as a profession. But again, this is challenged by others, who claim that their esoteric knowledge relates exclusively to the knowledge they transmit and that pedagogy is not based on esoteric knowledge.

(3) A profession requires a lengthy period of specialised training

The above esoteric skills and knowledge should be acquired over a long period of preparation including academic and practical training.

Lieberman (19) argued that the trend in the professions to combine theoretical and practical training has two implications for education. First, is that teaching programmes should be based on the established principles of professional training and second it is a professional justification for the requirements of practice teaching.

Although the professional education of prospective primary school teachers typically includes theoretical and practical elements, it is usually the period of training which is not as long as that required for other professions.

(4) A profession has a high degree of autonomy for both the individual practitioners and for the occupational group as a whole.

According to Lieberman (20), the notion of professional autonomy for the individual practitioner covers his freedom to exercise his independent skill and judgement, while the occupational group know the meaning of freedom to regulate their

occupations, whereas the non-professional occupations lack such freedoms.

Elvin, L. (21) and Morrel, D. (22), argued that whether the individual teacher has high or low degree of autonomy depends upon how one defines the term.

Furthermore, Hoyle (23) claimed that in those cases where the primary school teacher has some degree of autonomy over the work which he does with his pupils, but it is monitored by others (head-teachers or inspectors) he fulfils this criteria to some extent because such monitoring of teacher's work is carried out by other educationists and not by laymen.

Besides, a profession as a whole is autonomous when it is self-governing and has final control over its function. But again, Hoyle (24) believed that the case of the autonomy of the teaching profession in terms of determining the social function and modes of operation is complex, insofar as these operations are determined by the structure of the educational system - which is controlled clearly by the government in all countries - or by the content of education - in those countries which have national curricula.

- (5) An acceptance by the practitioner of personal responsibility for judgements made and acts performed within the scope of professional autonomy

The notion of responsibility within the range of professional autonomy is defined very clearly by Flexner (25).

"This quality of responsibility follows from the fact that professions are intellectual in character; for in all intellectual operations, the thinker takes upon himself a risk."

This criteria is firmly related with the former because a high degree of autonomy implies a correspondingly large measure of responsibility.

But would teachers accept legal liability for the academic failure of their students? Certainly not, because as Wilson, B. (26) argued, failure of a pupil cannot be counted only in terms of academic achievement. Teachers are socialising by building up attitudes of mind, thus the essential point of teaching and teachers' responsibility at the primary school level should be regarded in the light of its socialising function.

As T. Parsons (27) has pointed out, the child at the primary stage is judged according to a single criterion of achievement which involves both his educational achievement and his social behaviour. But these two components cannot be related exclusively with the efficiency of teaching because with respect to an individual child there is differentiations of cognitive abilities and levels of capacity to act, in accordance with the social values.

- (6) The public service a profession performs is not principally for financial gain

This criteria lies mainly upon the emphasis of the service a profession performs rather than the rewards to the practitioner.

- (7) A profession has a comprehensive self-governing organisation of practitioners

Lieberman (28) has suggested that members of a profession should belong to their professional organisation which sets standards of entry in to and exclusions from the profession, promotes high standards of practice and in general generates in-service growth. Moreover it must be as comprehensive as possible if it is to represent and express the thinking of the majority of practitioners.

Professional organisations are what Lieberman has



termed (29),

"the machinery by which the members of an occupational group can do collectively what is impossible for them to do individually."

It appears that through professional organisations members of a profession should collectively control entry to their professions by establishing standards of entry to training courses by selection and organisation of the content, and the examination system which is the basis for successful candidates to be admitted to full membership of the profession.

(8) A profession has a code of ethics

Members of a profession should accept a code of ethics, laid down by their organisation in which they belong, which in Lieberman's terms "has been clarified and interpreted at ambiguous points by concrete cases". The ethical criteria should be like the criteria of good courses. According to Lieberman, a code of ethics characterised by the following (30):

- it must lay down specific and clear principles to be applied in a variety of concrete cases;
- it must insist on reasonable standards of behaviour;
- it is not necessary to be in agreement with the professional policy;
- professional codes should be used to regulate only professional conduct;
- a code should provide a kind of protection for the practitioners for any situation in which he/she may become criticised or abused;
- it is important for the code to include all the ethical problems of the profession;
- professional codes must keep the concept of efficient service as the main purpose in all cases.

In education the establishment of the ethical criteria has fallen behind the development of those in the other professions.

Discussions of professional ethics in educational literature typically defines the ethical criteria on the basis of protecting the teacher and the organisation and are concerned with a number of forms of unprofessional behaviour. Clearly, the absence of a professionally-controlled licensing body in education creates theoretical and practical problems. Teaching organisations have drawn up professional codes of ethics through which they can terminate a teacher's membership, but not his right to teach.

### 3.1.3 The Implications of the Criteria of the Teaching Profession for Education and the Proposals for Change in Greece

It would appear from the above discussion that the analysis of teacher education based on the model drawn from Myron Lieberman implies the use of the criteria of the profession. These criteria begin to identify for the purpose of the study the questions which have been asked at the beginning.

A. The first question, which implies an approach by the teaching profession as a public service, enables us to distinguish between these two issues in the Greek context:

- (1) What is education for?
- (2) What is the role of the teacher?

Both issues are closely related to the aims of education and to the basic assumptions which inform the skills and knowledge teachers are expected to acquire as well as the selection of content, modes of study, methods of teaching and standards teacher training institutions are expected to reach.

The Greek Law 1566/85 "On the structure and function of primary and secondary education" lays down the general aims of education as follows (31),

"The aim of the primary and secondary education is to contribute to the overall, harmonised and well-balanced development of intellectual and psychosomatic forces of pupils, in order – independent of sex and origin – to have the possibility to be developed into unique personalities and to live creatively."

The same Law defines clearly that among the main factors which contribute in the attainment of this aim is "the personality and the preparation of the teaching personnel" (32). These child-centred aims of general education shape the public service the teachers in primary schools should perform. This kind of public service which education should be providing, before 1982, was in debate among educationally relevant groups, because the adequate professional preparation of primary and pre-primary school teachers did not contribute to the attainment of the aims of education and therefore to the successful performance of teachers' public service.

A research project carried out by P. Xohelis, (33) in the late seventies, on the attitudes of Greek teachers towards their social role, among the others suggested that the education of primary and pre-primary school teachers does not contribute satisfactorily to the fulfilment of their role because of the "adequate scientific preparation...." and "the lack of critical thought in educational issues" (34). Thus, the "establishment of Pedagogical departments... is a solution" (35) and their function "should prove the expected and very necessary change mainly in the philosophy and content of studies, as well as the better effectiveness of the future teachers" (36).

It is clear that the new proposals for change involve all these assumptions which when applied will have implications for the preparation of teachers, the kind of public service it is expected to perform and the attainment of the educational aims. In other words, the University Pedagogical Departments presuppose themselves by their nature - as it is defined by the Law (37) - the provision of scientific education. And this kind of education was the missing feature of the pre-primary and primary teachers' preparation before the Law 1982.

B. The second question what institutions are teachers trained in, suggests the idea that professions require a long and difficult training to gain the esoteric knowledge based on intellectual principles.

So, as a minimum potential professions compete with each other to make the training lengthy and difficult, it is part of making a monopoly out of knowledge.

In this sense the Greek teacher training colleges of a two year course were not the suggested type of training institution in terms of length of training.

The short length of training, before 1982, was related to the low social status of these institutions, their form of financial and administrative control, methods of recruiting, certification procedures and the nature of their final academic award.

The nature of the final academic award is particularly the general indication of the intellectual standards of a profession which members are supposed to possess.

The Certificate of Education which was awarded by the Teacher Training Colleges was usually considered as a recognition

of classroom competence and not as an acquisition of knowledge equal to that of the basic academic disciplines.

Perhaps it was the need for such a knowledge which made a minority of Greek pre-primary and primary school teachers to continue their studies in university courses (Theology, Philosophy, Political Science, Law) without dropping out of teaching.

Teachers' Union and students of Training Colleges have devoted much of their energies and efforts for the lengthening of their pre-service training before 1982.

Demands like,

"... the scientific preparation and education of pre-primary and primary school teachers is imposed in Highest University Pedagogical Departments with 4 years course" (38)

by the Teacher Union, or

"We ask for the increased years of study from two to four years... because we believe that the two-year course does not correspond to the demand of contemporary education" (39)

by students of Training Colleges, were central to pressure for change.

The introduction of University Pedagogical Departments which offer 4 years or 8 semesters' preparation courses for intending teachers for young children is really a satisfactory response to these demands and has a clear implication for the under discussion criteria of the profession.

Hence, since 1982, the length of training of pre-primary and primary school teachers, in comparison with other professions in Greece, seems to be the same at least as those which are relevant with the teaching. (Appendix 1 gives an example of the kind of faculties, departments and duration of studies from the University of Athens. While it is possible that other universities of the country provide less or other faculties, the duration of studies applies to all similar faculties and is always the same.)

C. The last operational question, who controls teachers' education relates directly to the question who controls entry to teaching profession by establishing standards of entry to preparatory courses, by selecting and organising the content of preparation programmes and by conducting examinations on the basis of which successful candidates are accepted as members of the profession.

According to Lieberman (40), all these issues should be controlled collectively by the teaching profession itself. Before 1982, the public authorities was the only group involved in the control of pre-primary and primary teacher education in Greece.

Admission of students in terms of the number and qualification of entry, the length of pre-service courses, the curricula and content and the examinations and certification requirements, all were determined by the Ministry of Education. Under these conditions pre-primary and primary teachers Union could not satisfy the present criteria.

After 1982, the situation partially changed. In the first place, the state continued to control admission requirements, number of selected students and to have the right to determine the length of courses by public law. However, it should be mentioned that this case applies to all professional groups in Greece, hence it could be argued that they do not satisfy all the criteria which could justify their characterisation as professional organisations.

On the contrary, the new policy introduced important changes in the control of the content and certification requirements for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers. In short, according to the Law the content of education courses

and the examination system are virtually determined by the University academic community. These regulations however apply to the rest of University departments.

#### 3.1.4 Social Barriers to Professional Status of the Teaching Profession

The phenomenon of the low status of the teaching profession stems from a number of different causes which frequently are defined as "social barriers" to professional status.

The most important of these are presented as follows:

##### (a) The effects of social class background of entrants to the profession

From the sociological point of view the widespread feeling of the past that "the higher the social strata from which recruits generally come, the higher the status of the profession"(41). And, of course," the higher the status of the profession the more it will attract recruits from the higher social strata" influenced to some extent the attitudes towards the teachers of elementary schools and their profession. This happened because entry into teaching in the past has been seen as a means of improving material conditions and social status by individuals of working class origins.

Thus the predominance of candidates of working class origin acted as a social obstacle for the higher standing of the teaching profession.

The characteristic movement of our time "from an ascriptive to an achievement oriented society"(42) presupposes that such social barriers should be lowered in many countries.

In Greece the relevant literature and statistical evidence confirms the low social origins of teachers. This may have affected their social position and professional status.

Appendix II shows that during the period 1956-1972 the number of students within tertiary education who originated in the working class of the Greek population increased from 18.3% to 24.9%. It also reveals that the largest proportion of the student population belonged to Teacher Training Colleges (Pedagogical Academies) (43). The low participants of middle-class and higher class students is due to the low status of the teaching occupation in Greece.

More recently a study carried out by P. Xohelis (44) on the "Educational function and social role" in Greece between primary and secondary school teachers showed that still a large number of Greek teachers (58.4 %) originate in the lower socio-economic levels of the whole population "something which corresponds generally to the population's composition..."

#### The Inbalance of sexes as an obstacle to Professionalisation

Despite the drop-out of many women in the early years of their career due to the intervention of marriage or maternity or other employment factors they constitute a high percentage of the teaching force.

This analogy should be connected with the widespread inequality and especially the occupational inequality of women in society, if it is to appreciate the significance of feminisation in education.

These attitudes and prejudices do not necessarily determine the inferior abilities of women compared with men. As Lieberman puts the matter, "it is the cultural bias which make a natural and easy relationship between the sexes all but impossible when there is occupational equality" (45) and he continues,



"The very factors which lead women to flow in to education in large numbers are the factors which make the professionalisation of education all but impossible."

In Greece the tendency to deny professional equality to women has been perpetuated for a long time. Even by 1976, in the final grade of Secondary Education, girls were taught that for women to hold jobs is of negative value:

"the working wife fills the house with worry and anxiety" (46)..... and

"Women have two great virtues: modesty and the desire to create a home in accordance with Greek tradition...." (47).

As M. Eliou points out, these traditions have been the most convenient alibi for every form of inequality (48).

All these social pressures, in general, or a part of them, have accompanied the woman's position in the Greek society, and contributed to her occupational inequality.

Despite this view Table 2 shows that the percentage of female students in Teacher Training Colleges was rather equivalent or lower from that of male students. The fact that the proportion of students in these colleges was defined by the state - until recently - in terms of both sexes is the main reason of such a balance. In so doing the issue of femininisation of education is not reflected at least in this kind of teacher education.

The exclusive presence of women in pre-school teacher training colleges is explained by the fact that until 1982 entry was restricted to female candidates and consequently the sector of early childhood education was made up only of female teaching personnel.

Table 2

The percentage of women students in primary and pre-primary Teacher Training Colleges in selected years

	1960-61			1970-71			1979-80		
	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%
Primary Teacher Training Colleges	2314	1054	45.5	2726	1205	44.2	3206	1510	47
Pre-school Teacher Training Colleges	167	167	100	224	100	100	963	963	100

Source: National Statistical Yearbook: Statistics of Education 1960-61, 1970-71, 1979-80

National Statistical Service of Greece, Athens.

Generally speaking, one contributory reason for this is perhaps that teachers are not yet ranked with other professions but tend to be classed more as "semi-professionals", they tend, more than many other occupations those more particularly in the middle reaches of the educational system, to suffer from "status-anxiety" (49).

Another important determinant of the lower economic status is the issue of teachers' productivity as an occupational group,

"One of the problems teachers face is that there is no practicable way as yet to measure the productivity of teachers." (50)

In comparison with other professions teaching is concerned with the whole child and its normal life as a social entity thus its consequences appear to be less urgent or dramatic than the doctor's or lawyer's and,

"Because it is less urgent and less dramatic it receives less social respect and carries less salary" (51).

Furthermore, the implications of mass education seems to have depressed rather than raised teachers' salaries because,

"the larger the teaching group becomes, the more difficult it becomes for the rest of the population to support it at a high income level" (52).

Moreover within teaching the absence of either explicit professional ethics or professional control of the supply of its practitioners or expulsion due to the fact that there has never been conditions in which adequate selectivity has been possible, is a considerable factor influencing economic status and social prestige.

Finally, in Greece, the economic conditions of pre-primary and primary school teachers before the reform was very

low compared with other graduates of higher and highest education. Table 5 shows the average annual earnings of graduates by level of study in tertiary education.

#### Profession as a Life-work

The eight characteristics of the profession which have been described at the beginning of the section are the most important considerations applied to the idea that professions should be a lifework.

It is true that the major professions tend to be permanent occupational choices since the economic and social rewards which follow the period of training are usually greater than the rewards of other occupations.

Moreover, often professional workers have a life commitment to the task of their occupation while non-professional workers, taken as a group, do not.

In view of the fact that life commitment to the task of teaching is not as apparent as in other professions,

it seems that it should be regarded as a barrier to the improvement of the status of the teaching profession. There are two main reasons underlying this state of affairs. The first is relevant to the career pattern of married women as has been discussed in the previous point.

The second is that the career pattern in the teaching profession could be a source of conflict in the teaching role and teacher's expectations. The upward occupational mobility in teaching often requires the teacher to leave the classroom for other posts, (administrative, research post, etc.) This career development tends to create problems within the profession itself and teachers behaviour towards the requirements of the new post.

Generally speaking, in Greece the number of teachers who leave their career is limited since the majority consider teaching as a life work.

### Salary

The interdependence of the economic status of teachers with the issue of professionalisation is an important barrier to the improvement of the teaching prestige.

It is perhaps the most significant of all the factors involved since salary reflects the social valuation accorded to the teaching profession.

It is generally accepted that the economic position of an occupational group is partly a measure of the position and prestige held in society, partly a reflection of the practical skills and knowledge required in the practice and partly a reflection of its power as an organised profession.

The various socio-economic changes that have been occurring in many countries have drastically affected teachers' salaries and welfare. Despite this, increases vary considerably if teachers' income is to be compared with the income of other professional groups. In Greece, for example, teachers' income is lower than other officials with the same typical qualification and positions in the hierarchy of the economic scale.

Table 3

Monthly income of teachers (primary and secondary)  
in comparison with other occupational groups with  
some typical qualifications and position in the  
economic scale

Grade	Professional Groups	Salary
3	Teachers	10.690
3	Post office officials	16.095
3	Banking officials	15.618
3	Electricity officials	14.200

Source: Didaskaliki Omospondia Litourgon Mesis Ekpedefseos,  
15.3.1976.

By the beginning of the implementation of the reform policy the economic status of pre-primary and primary school teachers have been improved in accordance with the secondary school teachers and other university graduate professionals. This is because according to civil service regulations salaries depend mainly upon the educational background of individuals in terms of years of study plus the experience. Assuming that about 90 per cent of teachers in Greece are civil servants it is expected that the former improvement will create a more favourable public attitude towards this professional group.

In this section of the chapter an attempt was made to analyse systematically the rationale for the changes included in the 1982 Law on the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers in Greece. The model of teaching as a profession has been presented, its implications in the proposals for change have been identified and the social barriers to professional status of teaching have been examined within the Greek context.

In order to analyse systematically how far current practices and proposed changes in pre-service teacher education are consistent with demands that teaching should be a profession, a general taxonomy of teacher education is needed, associated with the criteria of teaching as a profession, to prepare the way for further discussion.

## SECTION II

### GENERAL TAXONOMY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The demand of pre-primary and primary school teachers in Greece that teaching should be ranked among the other professions is related with five fundamental issues relevant to the preparatory courses. These are,

- A. Admission of students to preparatory courses should be based on equivalent standards of entry to other professions, in terms of school background and academic standards.
- B. The length of preparatory courses is interrelated with the acquisition of esoteric knowledge based on intellectual principles.
- C. The content of training programmes has a direct influence on the skills and knowledge teachers are expected to acquire in order to provide the desirable kind of public service and to contribute to the attainment of the aims of education.
- D. The certification procedures is the way which gives access to teaching in most cases and is considered the basic criteria for membership in the teaching profession.
- E. The control of teacher education is relevant to the high degree of autonomy the teaching profession should have for both the occupational group and the individual teacher.

The following taxonomy, based on these five issues, discusses some relevant features.

### 3.2.1 Admission of Students

Selection procedures in teacher education is a matter of crucial importance. Firstly because it is a problem of selecting suitable members of society to become a nation's teachers; secondly, it is an issue of control in terms of ensuring the appropriate balance between demand and supply of qualified teachers in a particular country.

These two aspects undoubtedly are involved in the consideration and identification of entrance requirements to teacher educational programmes.

Besides, selection of students presupposes the presence of assessment criteria which should justify relevant decisions. Certainly, the nature of these criteria may be different between countries.

The 1966 Special Inter-Governmental Conference (53) convened by UNESCO and presented in the first section of the present chapter, offered a draft Recommendation concerning the status of teachers which among the others recommended the following, concerning the admission of students to preparatory teaching programmes:

Paragraph 13 "Policy governing entry in to preparation for teaching should rest on the need to provide society with an adequate supply of teachers who possess the necessary moral, intellectual and physical qualities and who have the required professional knowledge and skills"

and

Paragraph 14 "Admission to teacher preparation should be based on the completion of appropriate secondary educa-



tion, and the evidence of the possession of personal qualities likely to help the persons concerned to become worthy members of the profession."

Thus school background, academic achievement and personal qualifications seems to be the main considerations that may compose the basis for establishing standards of entry to preparatory programmes for teaching. Within the concept of teaching as a profession the issue of school background assumes that a certain number of years of education correspond to the completion of full secondary education which in turn ensures that the candidates have received all the required general education for their personal development before entering advanced courses.

The nature of academic achievement criteria implies selection strictly based on academic competence with the cut-off point on the performance scale determined in advance. It also usually involves taking the school marks into account or high competence in the state entrance examinations. This kind of state entrance examination applies to the whole country and ensures the status of entrance qualifications because on the one side it is anonymous <sup>in</sup> the case of written examinations - and on the other side usually is conducted by personnel from outside the teacher education establishments.

Finally, the third issue of personal qualifications involves moral and physical qualities as well as the personality of candidates.

There is a great volume of psychological research relevant to the problems of selecting appropriate candidates for the teaching profession in terms of personal characteristics and individual abilities. Much of this research has been focused

on the motivation, interests, attitudes and personality traits of students but the results in general were insufficiently conclusive to serve as a criteria for selection (54).

In the light of these research findings, in 1972, the UNESCO Expert Committee on Problems of Teacher Education, tried to identify criteria of qualifications and personal qualities in relation to effective teaching, in order to provide fruitful suggestions for the procedures of selection. But the committee found that (55),

"a half-century of prodigious research effort has enabled us to make very little progress in this direction... what is called for is a fresh approach to this problem, a more fundamental analysis of the process of teaching which in turn might throw more light on the kind of skills, qualities and traits that are required of those who undertake the task."

Selection criteria based on such research findings tend to predict the successful students of education rather than the successful teacher.

Moral qualities as well, are among the expected features prospective teachers should have, because of the important role they play especially at the primary level of education. Because teaching at this level is seeking to cultivate attitudes of mind it requires from the teacher the involvement of moral and social values in setting standards for personal behaviour and establishing ideals of behaviour patterns approved by society (56).

Finally, physical qualities as a matter involved in admission requirements sometimes applies not only in terms of physical health but also in terms of physical developmental characteristics which usually are not expected for entry to other professions. In Greece, for example, before the reform, admission to teacher training colleges was restricted to those candidates who

were taller than a defined height. This requirement did not apply to candidates for university courses.

Furthermore - in Greece again - there was an apparent sex discrimination in the access to teacher training courses for pre-primary education, because they were open only to female candidates.

However, these criteria of selection were in contradiction with the principles of the UNESCO Committee's draft recommendations concerning the status of teachers, because paragraph 7 emphasises, (57)

"All aspects of the preparation and employment of teachers should be free from any forms of discrimination on grounds of race, colour, sex, religious, political opinion, national or social origin, or economic conditions."

The former discussion examined the nature of criteria upon which usually admission of students to the teacher preparation programme is based. These criteria are neither exclusive nor sufficient on their own, but their interaction gives the final basis for selection.

It is their combination which gives rise to debates on teacher professionalisation in the policy making process. Of course the establishment of selection criteria on a professional basis does not presuppose their application in the actual selection. It has been seen that often the difficulty lies with disagreement over the professional autonomy of the teaching profession. However it should be mentioned that the model of teaching as a profession which has been developed in the first section of the chapter suggests that the professional character of requirements for entrance is primarily a matter of professional decision.

### 3.2.2 Length of Teacher Education Courses

Because a profession is founded upon the knowledge which is acquired after a long period of academic and practical training the influence of length of training upon the status of the teaching profession is considerable. Apparently the former criteria applies to the education of secondary school teachers but does not always to that of primary and nursery school teachers.

The division between the preparation of teachers for primary and secondary school still remains well marked in the length of their initial preparation in some countries.

Within this context the length of the course is closely related with the level of education. The future teacher will teach, from kindergarten at one end to pre-university preparation at the other.

Paragraph 21(1) of the 1966 ILO / UNESCO Recommendations lays down the following requirements to ensure that the preparation courses of all teachers have the same status, in terms of length and quality of training (58).

"All teachers should be prepared in general, special and pedagogical subjects in universities, or in institutions, or also in special institutions for the preparation of teachers."

Although the provision has not yet been applied in many countries, there is a growing tendency for an increase in the length of courses.

Among them, the desire for professional prestige, improvement of teachers' economic status and social image are regarded as the main pressures for a longer training and the key factors in all education reforms (59).

It became evident that higher level of academic and professional education necessitates new patterns and strategies of

training. The variety of reforms which either have been or are being brought in most countries of the world for the education of primary and pre-primary school teachers have a common aim: to give them a "real" professional identity and to provide confidence and assurance in the conduct of their role.

Thus increase in the length of courses is an evidence of providing the teaching force with a valuable framework of special skills and sufficient knowledge necessary on the one hand for the exercise of his role and on the other hand for his journey into professional life.

The preceding discussion examined the issue of the preparation period for teaching in the light of the requirements of a profession. In this sense the long length of teacher education courses is among the basic criteria, which ensure the provision of the knowledge based on intellectual principles and has implication to professional status of teaching.

Besides the issue represented, one category of criticisms against the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers in Greece before the 1982 Law and after the reform, involves one of the most significant proposed changes which can contribute to the professionalisation of teaching.

### 3.2.3 The Content of Teacher Education Programmes

The content of teacher preparation programmes represents a considerable aspect in teacher's professional education. Particularly for our purposes it seems to be virtually conclusive because it is assumed that it reveals implicit normative positions concerning the fundamental requirements of the teaching profession. It involves four principles: selection, organisation, evaluation and control on the decision-making.

### 3.2.3.1 Content Selection

Content selection is concerned with the expressions "how the content is selected" and "what is selected". There are two different approaches relevant to this issue.

The first is based on these criteria which naturally are involved in the study of education as a profession. Their conception is about the nature of esoteric knowledge that teachers should acquire and consequently will constitute the basis for justifying the professional content of teacher preparation programmes.

The second approach is concerned with the criteria provided by the recommendations of international bodies on education. The nature of these essential documents might be considered to be both normative and descriptive concerns and have world-wide acceptance in theoretical and sometimes in practical terms.

There are two international documents concerning approaches to teacher education. These are,

- (i) A document of the International Bureau of Education (60) on the education of primary school teachers and
- (ii) The draft recommendations presented by the ILO/UNESCO Committee concerning the status of the teaching profession in the 1966 Special Intergovernmental Conference (The purpose of the Conference and the principles which underlied the draft Recommendations have been analysed briefly in the first section of the chapter).

In the present analysis the issue of content selection will be examined through the interaction of the first approach and the relevant recommendations offered by the ILO/UNESCO Committee (61).

These recommendations are,

Paragraph 20: Fundamentally a teacher-preparation programme

should include:

- (a) general studies;
- (b) study of the main elements of philosophy, psychology, sociology as applied to education, the theory and history of education, and of comparative education, experimental pedagogy, school administration and methods of teaching the various subjects;
- (c) studies related to the student's intended field of teaching;
- (d) practice in teaching and in conducting extra curriculum activities under the guidance of fully qualified teachers.

This paragraph introduces four items for inclusion in the teacher preparation programme "items that are of such generality as necessary to common assent" (62).

The first category includes general studies basic to the personal education of students, the second category involves the study of theories of education and pedagogic methods, the third implies the study of student's specialised field of teaching and the fourth includes students' practical training.

For the purposes of the study these recommended areas of study in the teacher preparation programmes are considered as essential guidelines on the content selection procedures.

In so doing, how are these criteria for content selection related to the proposed changes in Greek teacher education?

The main criticism against the content of teacher training colleges in Greece before the policy change was that the range of studies was restricted dramatically to general studies

and specialised field of teaching and there was little or no place for the study of basic disciplines, pedagogical elements and teaching practice. In this sense, before the policy change, teachers' demand for professional preparation programmes was on the basis of these components. But here there are some very interesting questions:

How far has the study of the main elements of education in teacher preparation programmes have implications for the esoteric knowledge which is a fundamental requirement of professionalisation? and, What kind of knowledge derived from the main elements of education should justify the selection of subjects for pre-service programmes?

- Vital to the teaching process is the knowledge of the person being educated and the conditions required for learning. This is the knowledge that derives from the developmental psychology, the child's psychology and the psychology of education. All are closely related because they are concerned with the nature of knowledge, the intellectual development of children and the learning process (63).
- The study of philosophy of education tends to play a key part in teachers' education. This is quite natural since "philosophers and historians of ideas first made contributions to educational theory with their concepts about the nature of man, society and knowledge" (64).
- Besides it is even necessary to study the historical foundations of education. A historical work requires definition of problems, searching for relevant data



and formulating possible solutions. If the teacher disregards all the previous achievements in his educational questions and problems, he will run the risk of repeating the same errors.

- Education is not only a matter of individual process but also a social phenomenon. Consequently the discipline of sociology of education is an important requirement because through the teacher-pupil relationship the social, cultural, linguistic, scientific, aesthetic, and technological values perpetuate the particular philosophy of life.
  - The study of comparative education helps to throw light on foreign educational systems, their social and cultural background in relation with the function of education as well as their policy process in innovations. Besides it provides a scientific study of enquiry into identification of various educational problems and contributes to policy solutions.
  - As the natural and experimental sciences similarly pursue the study of experimental education as a prerequisite for the Science of Education it helps the teacher to adopt a scientific methodology for the analysis of the reality.
- All the preceding disciplines contribute to the solutions of educational problems by the provision of experimental, philosophical, sociological, statistical, comparative and historical methods.
- Methodology, also known as teaching methods is concerned with the art of teaching and the transmission of know-

ledge in the strictest sense of the term. If the teacher is regarded as an expert in education and in scientific subjects he should be trained in the special training methods of the teaching subjects.

- School administration, organisation and legislation are necessary components of the teacher preparation content since the actual educational process tends to meet all aspects of educational objectives.
- Finally, educational counselling and vocational guidance stress the values of the achievement of self-knowledge, helps the full personal development of the teaching personnel and contributes to educational effectiveness.

This analysis of the content selection in terms of fundamental aspects of the disciplines, which derive from the principles of education, needs to be completed by an integrative approach if it is to equip the teacher with the peculiar esoteric knowledge of the teaching profession.

### 3.2.3.2 Content Organisation

In this issue we must face at once one of the inevitable complexities of this terrain, the fact that there is an apparent disunity of purpose among the groups involved in the organisation of pre-service preparation programmes. It is,

"a consequence of the fact that teacher education has never been systematically planned but is the product of haphazard development and improvisation" (65).

Nevertheless two aspects of organisation have always demanded attention,

- (a) What and how many subjects should constitute the

programme of studies and

(b) How they relate to each other.

Although the first aspect is predetermined to a certain degree by the nature of criteria applied in content selection, it is mainly concerned with the number of objectives that derive from the **initial** training programme and justify the need for attempts to bring about personal maturity of the future teacher.

The achievement of the above objectives of the curriculum content should reconcile three basic goals: to develop the academic and personal competence of the individual student, to introduce him to the major fields of professional studies and to enable him to develop practical competence in his professional field.

Thus the second aspect is dealing mainly with the issue of balance between the three mentioned components: general education, specialised subject-matter studies and professional education.

General academic studies have been designed almost wholly as a means of furthering the student's personal intellectual development.

The notion "personal development" implies of course, different modes of thought, but central to the idea is "rational autonomy" and "other important qualities such as emotional stability, self-control, personal insight, the ability to establish inter-personal relationships, and sensitivity towards other people's interests and feelings" (66).

These features of personal development can be realised through the experiences gained from both academic and professional studies.

This view reveals the values associated with the knowledge

that is acquired through academic study and the specific area of both knowledge and professional study.

The content of specialised subject-matter studies is to equip students with the full array of knowledge and skills that are required to deal with the modern nursery and primary school.

Notions like teaching methods, learning environment, textbooks and audio-visual material all are relevant here.

Specialisation within pre-primary and primary education is naturally on a broad basis. Information is conferred on the one side on society and nature and on the other side with the introduction to instrumental knowledge.

Finally professional studies introduce to the students the main principles and ideas which derive from the basic disciplines to the study of education.

They imply a partnership between a body of theoretical knowledge that helps the student in making professional choices and decisions and the various approaches and techniques of practical teaching.

What is of importance in the content is the proportion of the three components.

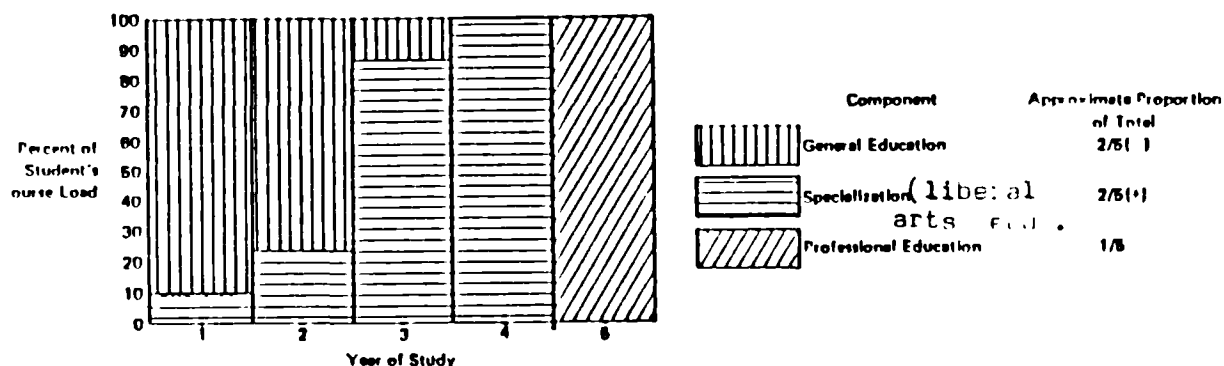
The ideal "professional" requirements rely on their balance within the preparation programmes. But the concept of balance, like many other concepts, is both "vague and complex" (67).

Thus in many cases the proportion of the three components varies depending on the emphasis given by those responsible for the content decision-making process. Although the three components can be organised in several ways it is worthwhile to mention the four general patterns proposed by Haberman and Stinnet (Figures I, II, III, IV) (68).

Relationships of general-special-professional education

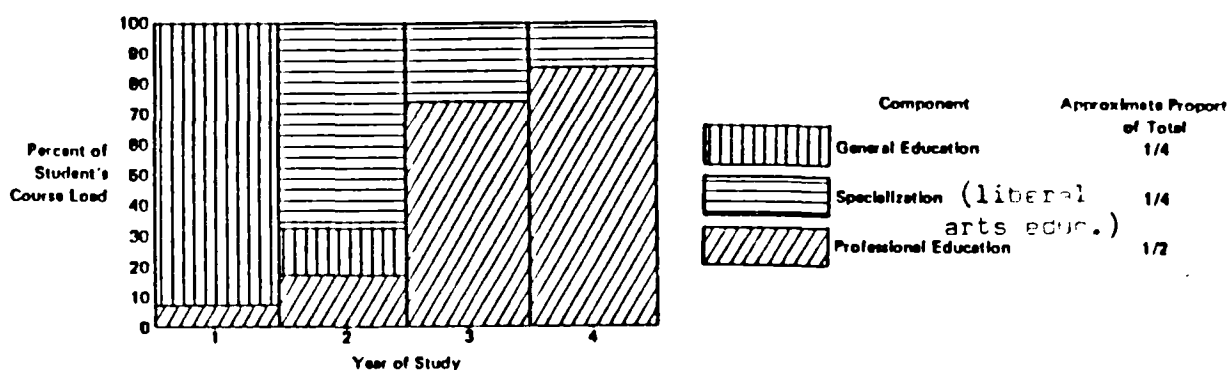
Figure I

Pattern A



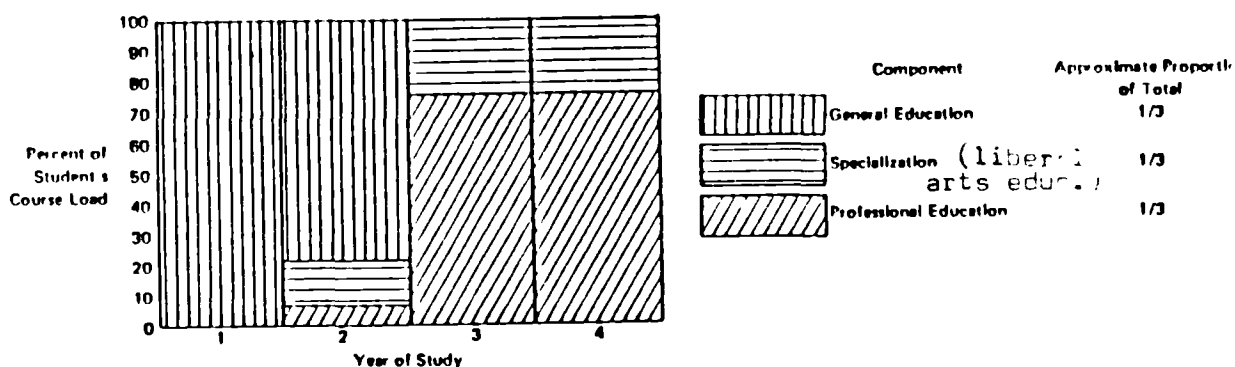
Pattern B

Figure II



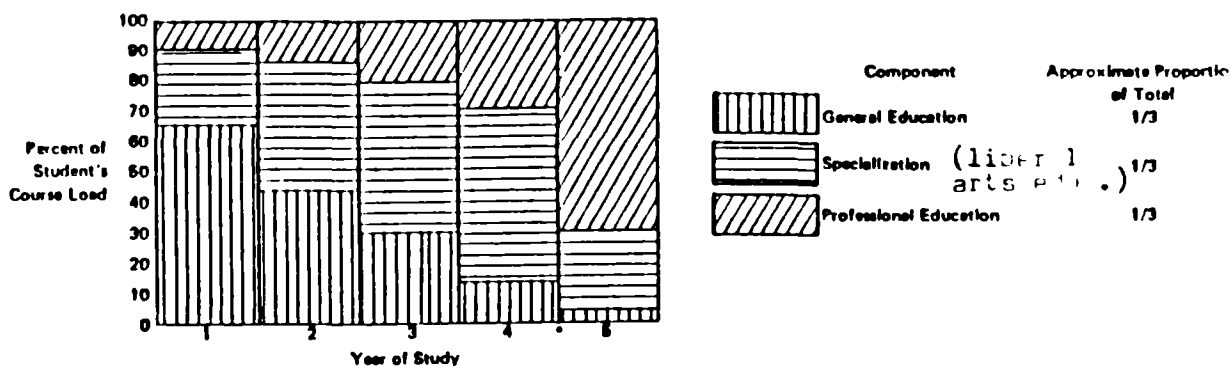
Pattern C

Figure III



Pattern D

Figure IV



### 3.2.3.3 Content Evaluation

Content and curricula evaluation presupposes explicit and clear set of curricula objectives and appropriate means to achieve them. They must be,

"objectives which have been proved against all comers to be educationally respectable; to connect with abilities of those pupils for whom is is designed; and to be more efficient than rivals in the field." (69).

These objectives should be logically consistent and should reflect the growing special, technological and professional demands confronting the teacher in schools. Furthermore, they should be central to any content selection and curriculum planning to be formulated in specific operational terms and applied to the specific areas of knowledge of teacher preparation programmes.

Essentially the overall aim of curriculum of teacher education should integrate the former set of objectives if it is to contribute to achievement of a knowledge-based profession.

The evaluation literature offers various research approaches to content and curriculum evaluation.

Generally speaking the underlying aim of all is the establishment of a rationale for teacher education that will be the means of determining the extent to which this has proved to be servicable.

### 3.2.4 Teacher Certification

Teacher certification is the process which provides evidence that one possesses the minimum requirements needed to enter and continue in the practice of teaching, it is the "legal admittance to the profession" (70), and involves the "conferment of recognised - or qualified - teacher status by the national, state or other teacher-employing authorities" (71).

From the professional point of view its major purpose is to ensure that candidates for the teaching profession have a "safe level" of preparation at the beginning of their teaching career.

Haberman and Stinnett (1973) described certification requirements as the process that protects both the practitioner himself and the client. It is a guarantee of high quality service to the public which is "safeguarded against the unqualified, the charlatan, and the quack" (72). Moreover, the professional is protected against competition from the unqualified.

While other professions issue only one type of legal certificate within the teaching profession the multiplicity of certificates tends to be confusing for two reasons: first because usually kindergarten, primary and secondary school teaching certificates are **distinct** and second, the certificate of secondary school teacher should specify the subject of specialisation which the holder is qualified to teach.

The issue is relevant to the large number of institutions whether they are state or private and of university level or not. Clearly the evolution of teacher education as an integral part of the mainstream of higher education tends to reduce the variety of certificates.

Certification is generally based upon general and preparation requirements. Although many of the general requirements have been diminished or disappeared in recent years in some countries, legislation specifies some minor requisites which apply to all teachers, regardless of the level of education taught.

Such requirements are special courses, citizenship, licence fee, good health, minimum or maximum age, oath of allegiance,

recommendation of his preparing college or employer, etc. (73).

Preparation requirements are based on the successful completion of initial preparation courses provided by a recognised institution of teacher education.

The candidates attend and pass the courses which have been developed for their preparation and provide evidence that they have possessed the minimum requirements to be certified. Usually teacher training institutions conduct their programmes so as to satisfy state certification requirements.

Although comparison between certification requirements in education with the requirements in other professions is difficult since the requirements and levels of preparation in all professions are changing constantly, a broad conclusion could be made in Lieberman's terms, (74)

"The minimum academic requirements in education are considerably less than they are in most of the professions.... "

"However, the foundation of an adequate professional approach to entry to professional practice has typically been the state-wide examinations under the control of the profession" (75).

### 3.2.5 Control of Teacher Education

The problems of teacher training programmes have raised questions of control of teacher education very often between the profession itself and the government agencies. These questions deal mainly with the following four aspects of policy which appears as a continuous sequence,

- (a) the admission of students;
- (b) the length of their courses;
- (c) the content and
- (d) certification.



(a) Admission

Among the most influential agencies on the admission requirements to teacher education is the State. This is because the state has a double interest in this matter, firstly because it is matter of efficient planning of social policy to provide the overall supply of teachers in society according to the existing demands and secondly, it is a matter of capital costs and running expenses for teacher education since both issues have to be met in large measure from public funds due <sup>to</sup> the growth of universal education and the expansion of secondary and higher education.

The teaching profession also has an interest in the selection of students for preparation courses because in the light of the established criteria of teaching as a profession the issue is an essential feature of the professional autonomy.

Finally universities are a third relevant agency in the sense that in those countries where teacher education has been closely identified or integrated with universities, patterns of selection have been modified towards university standards.

How far these agencies exercise control on admission procedures in each country depends on the prevailing administrative, social and political conditions (76).

In other words, in countries with high centralised administrative system the central government usually decides about the number of candidates and the pattern of admission procedures. (Greece is an example of the case.)

Furthermore social and political conditions of a country influence admission arrangements in the way which social policy and planning is related with the institution responsible for the education of teachers. Thus, in Greece, for example, neither teacher training colleges nor universities are responsible for

these arrangements because access to tertiary level institutions is a very sensitive social issue and serves more political than efficient planning purposes. On the contrary, in other countries where universities preserve their distinctive character they conduct independent examination arrangements from the State. The case of teacher training colleges depends how far they are left to the direction of governmental or university agencies to determine admission requirements.

In fact, the teaching profession itself it seems, does not enjoy this feature of professional autonomy directly. However, in those cases where teacher education has been integrated or closely associated with the universities which dominate the selection arrangements, the teaching profession through the professional educators of the university personnel is able to have some influence on the standards of entry.

(b) Length of Courses

The length of courses in teacher training colleges used to be under the control of the state. Through this function the state could influence the overall supply of teachers in periods of their shortage by reducing their period of pre-service preparation. Thus, in Greece, under an emergency training scheme, the length of courses for intending pre-primary school teachers was reduced from two years to nine months.

It was the period of early seventies when the rapid expansion of pre-school education was accompanied by a shortage of kindergarten teachers and the demand for these teachers exceeded the supply. Again, in England, in periods of large teacher shortage the length of courses for mature students decreased from two years to fifteen months (77).

The length of teacher education courses within the universities is dominated by the university regulations and the state can offer only proposals which may be accepted or rejected by the universities.

In considering this point of view, it should be recognised that the teaching profession has very little or no control in most cases on this issue.

(c) Content

Decisions upon the content and curriculum of teacher education programmes rest upon a number of representatives of the society who work together to accomplish many worthwhile social objectives. The argument that sometimes the interests of these groups are conflicting is simply another way of stating that there is one more reason to analyse the problem of teacher preparation in the light of this issue. Thus the analysis of political processes and the participants involved in the proposed change in Greek teacher education reform is an interesting issue which will be examined in a later chapter.

(d) Certification

The issue of control of certification emerges from the question, "How far the teaching profession determines certification requirements for a qualified teacher?" Among the most important groups which may exert influence on this issue are: the government agency, the universities, the colleges of teacher education and the teaching profession itself.

In some countries the award of a college or university degree or diploma is accepted by the employing authority as sufficient certification for the teachers' status although sometimes the employer requires a further statement from the institution about his "personal suitability for teaching" (78).

In this case government authorities play only a minor role since the academic and professional staff decide who shall, or shall not, be admitted as a qualified teacher to the profession, thus the most important agents of the decision-making body are the colleges of teacher education or the universities.

In other countries, where the government agency has the right to award a certificate to teach, it conducts qualifying state examinations or implements some form of teacher competency tests in addition to graduation from a teacher education course. Thus, in the U.S.A. a number of states set up additional tests to assess the candidate's competency in order to be a certified teacher (79).

Where the qualifying examination is set by agencies outside the teaching institutions inevitably certification requirements tend to prescribe teacher education programmes. This was criticised by the Le Sure (80) (1963) who claimed that,

"only the preparing institution dedicated to quality can select and prepare teacher candidates measure the product of its programme".

The professional power of the teaching profession on certification requirements have been stressed by Kinney (81) who claimed that certification procedures should serve as a prerequisite for admission to the teaching profession and not as a civil service procedure, for regulating employment. Thus the function of certification and examination should constitute responsibilities of the organised profession which should control the quality of its membership and the entry to the teaching profession.

Indeed, his view is very close to Lieberman's established criteria of teaching as a self-governing profession. In the U.S.A.

this has already been achieved but it is doubtful if it applies to teaching profession in other countries.

The general conclusion which can be drawn from the discussion on the control of teacher education is that the most influential agencies are the State agency and the Universities rather than the teaching profession. Clearly teachers have not yet achieved the desirable level of autonomy evolved in the requirements of teaching as a profession.

The fact that public authorities are reluctant to grant to the teaching profession the kind of autonomy enjoyed by other professions - as illustrated on their proposals concerning public education-(82) is justified by their dissatisfaction with the view that universities should dominate the politics of teacher education.

### References - Chapter III

- (1) Efimeris tis kivernisis tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Law 1268/1982, 16.7.82, Athens, Article 6, paragraph 2.
- (2) Ibid., Article 1, para. 2.
- (3) Porpodas, K., Ta panepistimiaka pedagogika tmimata ke e epistimoniki taftotita ton neon daskalon" in Epistimoniko vema ton litourgon tis demotikis Ekpedefsisis, Vol. 4, Year 28, June-July, August, 1983, Athens, p. 56.
- (4) Ibid. p. 59.
- (5) Fragos, Ch. "Epikera themata pedeias", Gutenberg, Pedagogiki Seira, Athens, 1986, p. 153.
- (6) Ibid., pp. 157-158.
- (7) DOE, "Diakirixi tis Didaskalikis Omospondias Ellados Pros tous gonis ke kidemones ton matheton ton Demotikon Scholion ke Nipiagogion olis tis horas" in Sichrono Nepiagogio, Vol. 7, May-June 1980, No.5-6, Ed. Vasdekis, Athens, pp. 281-282.
- (8) UNESCO/International Labour Organisation, Recommendation Concerning the status of teachers Switzerland, 1984, pp. 1-2.
- (9) Ibid., para. 6, p.6.
- (10) Requzzoni, M., "European Innovations in Teachers' In-service Training" in Lomax, D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, London, p. 169, 1973.
- (11) Etzioni, A., The Semi-professions and their Organisation, New York, The Free Press, 1969.
- (12) Lomax, D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, ibid. p. 2.
- (13) Holmes, B., "The politics of Teacher Education" in Teacher Education, papers on the Fifth General Meeting, Stockholm, Sweden, 1971, p. 94.
- (14) Ibid., p. 88.
- (15) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice-Hall, 1956, New York, pp. 2-6.
- (16) Ibid., p. 2.
- (17) Hoyle, E., The Role of the Teacher, Department of Education, University of Manchester, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1969, p. 81.
- (18) Hall, K.R., Hans N., Lauwerys, J., "The Social Position of Teachers" in The Yearbook of Education, 1953, London, p. 27.

- (19) Lieberman, M., op.cit., p. 208.
- (20) Ibid., p. 3.
- (21) Elvin, L., "Comments on the Address given by Mr. D.H. Morrell" Educational Research 5 (2), 1963.
- (22) Morrell, D., "The functions of the teacher in relation to Research and Development Work in the Area of the Curriculum and Examinations" in Educational Research 5(2), 1963.
- (23) Hoyle, E., The Role of the Teacher, op.cit., pp. 82-83.
- (24) Ibid., p. 84.
- (25) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 4.
- (26) Wilson, B.R., "The Teacher's Role - A Sociological Analysis", in British Journal of Sociology, XIII, 1, p. 23. 1962.
- (27) Parson, T., "The School Class as a Social System", in Halsey, A.H., Floud, J., and Anderson, C.A., Education, Economy and Society, New York, Free Press, 1961.
- (28) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 17.
- (29) Ibid., p. 257.
- (30) Ibid., p. 418.
- (31) Ypourgeio Ethnikis Pedeias ke threskeumatou, Nomos Plaisio No. 1566/85, Organismos Ekdoseo didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985, Article 1, para. 1.
- (32) Ibid., para. 2.
- (33) Xohelis, P., To Ekpedefitiko ergo os Kinonikos rol<sup>os</sup>, Ed. Afoi Kyriakidi, Thessaloniki, 1984, p. 103.
- (34) Ibid., p. 106.
- (35) Ibid.
- (36) Ibid., p. 101.
- (37) Law 1268/1982, op.cit., Article 1, para. 2.
- (38) Didaskaliki Omospordia Elladas, Diakirixi tis Didaskalikis Omospondias Ellados, op.cit.
- (39) Union of Students Pedagogical Academies, Anichti Epistol<sup>i</sup> pros ton Ellinikilao", 10.1.1975, in Sychrono Niapiagogon, Vol. 2, Ed. Vasdekis, Athens, 1975, p. 93.
- (40) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 17.

- (41) Hoyle, E., The Role of the Teacher, Department of Education, University of Manchester, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1969, p. 81.
- (42) Ibid., p. 87.
- (43) Ethniki Statistiki Ipiresia tis Ellados, Statistiki tis Ekpedefseos, 1955-1956, 1962-1963, 1971-1972, Athens.
- (44) Xohelis, P., "To Ekpedeftiko ergo os Kinonikosrolos" Pedagogiki ke Ekpedefsi, Ed. Afoi kiriakidi, Thessaloniki, 1984, p. 55.
- (45) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 24.
- (46) Gregoriadou, K., Christiani ithiki, Textbook for Sixth Forms, Athens, Ed. Organismos Ekdoseon Scholikon vivlion, 1976, pp. 124-125.
- (47) Ibid.
- (48) Eliou, M., "Those Whom the Reform Forgot", in Comparative Education Review, 1978, p. 67.
- (49) Westwood, J.L., "The Role of the Teacher" in Educational Research, Vol. 9, No.2, p. 127, 1966-1967.
- (50) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 410.
- (51) Wilson, B., "The Teacher's Role - A Sociological Analysis", in British Journal of Sociology, XIII, I, p.24, 1962.
- (52) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit., p. 413.
- (53) Unesco/International Labour Organisation, Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers, op.cit., p. 12.
- (54) Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, Report of a Meeting of International Experts, Unesco, Hamburg, 1972, pp. 40-41.
- (55) Ibid.
- (56) Wilson, B.R., The Teache's Role - A Sociological Analysis, op.cit., p.17.
- (57) Unesco/ILO, op.cit., para. 7, p. 7.
- (58) Ibid., p. 15.
- (59) Gimeno, B.J., and Ibanez, R.M., The Education of Primary and Secondary School Teachers, An international comparative study, Unesco, Unesco Press, France, 1981, p. 108.



- (60) Recommendations No. 36 of the I.B.E. study in 1953 was an especially useful effort to link educational legislation and practice in teacher education by considering subjects clearly and their implications for professional education studies. As reported the Recommendations focused upon the following list of subjects:
- General Psychology, Child Psychology, Principles of Education, History of Education and Comparative Education, Experimental Education, Teaching Methods, School Organisation, Administration and Legislation, Educational Problems, Teaching Practice, Teaching Methods, Social Studies, Domestic Economy, Hygiene, Physical Education, Singing, Drawing, Handwork, Agriculture.
- (61) Unesco/ILO op.cit., p. 15.
- (62) Ibid., p. 15.
- (63) Gimeno B.J. and Ibanez, M.R., The Education of Primary and Secondary Teachers, op.cit., p. 34.
- (64) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, London, 1981, p. 111.
- (65) Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, op.cit., p. 51.
- (66) Renshaw, R., "The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum" in Tibble, W.J., The Future of Teacher Training, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1971, p. 505.
- (67) Browne, B.J. and Skilbeck, N., "The Balance of Studies in Colleges of Education", in Goldy, M., Greenwald, O.J., and West, R., Curriculum Design, Open University, Croom Helm, London in association with the Open University Press, 1977, London, p. 492.
- (68) Haberman, M. and Stinnett, T.M., Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, McCutcheon Publ. Corporation, California, U.S.A., 1973, pp. 86-88.
- (69) White, J.P., "The Concept of Curriculum Evaluation", in Goldy, M., Greenwald, J. and West, R., Curriculum Design, op.cit., p. 397.
- (70) Spodek, B., Saracho, N.O., "The Preparation and Certification of Early Childhood Personnel", in Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education, Spodek, B., The Free Press, New York, 1982, p. 406.
- (71) Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, NFER Publishing Company, Windsor, 1978, p. 98.
- (72) Haberman, M., and Stinnett, T.M., Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, op.cit., p. 17.

- (73) Ibid., p. 19.
- (74) Lieberman, M., Teaching as a Profession, op.cit., p. 146.
- (75) Ibid., p. 150.
- (76) Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, op.cit., p. 28.
- (77) Holmes, B., The Politics of Teacher Education, op.cit., p. 93.
- (78) Teylor, W., Research and Reforms in Teacher Education p. 98.
- (79) Cowen, R., "Aspects of Organisation, Finance and Administration of Teacher Education", in Teacher Education, Proceedings of the Comparative Education Society in Europe, Stockholm, 1971, pp. 107-108.
- (80) Stinnett, M.T., "Teacher Certification", in Review of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No.3, June 1967, p. 249
- (81) Ibid., p. 254.
- (82) Holmes, B., The Politics of Teacher Education, op.cit., pp. 94-95.

## Chapter IV

SPECIFIC ISSUES OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN GREECE

The preceding chapter has attempted to examine the particular aspects of teacher education which frequently tend to characterise the movement towards professionalisation and consequently form the attitudes and demands for innovation and modernisation.

The foregoing issues will be taken as a convenient classification for the analysis of the Greek context. They will be viewed as the main objects of demands for teacher education reform which occupied attention during the policy process.

This chapter is organised in two sections.

The first section focuses on the preparation of pre-primary and primary school teachers in teacher training colleges and reveals the emergence of dissatisfaction with the old system.

The second section examines the changes in the education and training of teachers which have accompanied the democratisation of higher education in Greece, after the 1982 Law and the efforts towards the professionalisation of the teaching profession.

SECTION I

SPECIFIC ISSUES OF PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER  
EDUCATION BEFORE THE REFORM: THE CASE OF  
TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

4.1.1 Type of Institutions

According to the general definitions given by UNESCO the term tertiary and higher education includes: (1)

"... all types of education, provided in institutions such as universities, liberal arts colleges, technological institutes and teacher training colleges for which,

- (a) the basic entrance requirement is completion of secondary education....

- (b) the usual entrance age is 18 years and
- (c) in which the courses lead to the giving of a named award (degree, diploma or certificate of higher studies)".

In this sense, Greek Teacher Training Colleges since 1933, as has been presented in the analysis of Chapter II - until they were phased out - were part of the tertiary system of education because students were accepted after the completion of full secondary education, their usual entrance was 18 years of age and the final award was the "Certificate" of studies.

In Greece tertiary education is made up of two different types of study which are also known by two different terms, namely, "higher" for non-university and "highest" for university. The "highest" sector is made up of universities and institutions which enjoy university status while the "higher" education refers to non-university educational establishments. Both types of educational establishments are public and free for successful candidates.

Teacher Training Colleges belonged to the "Higher" sector. Bearing in mind the ideological and political context in which these institutions were set up - particularly the Pedagogical Academies - their aims and purpose had seriously been questioned under the new political climate, the introduction of demotiki language in education, and the reconsideration about the teachers' scientific and professional training (after 1981). The result was their abolition and the introduction of University Pedagogical Departments instead. However before the reform-change there were two types of teacher training colleges:

- (a) The Schools of Nipiagogon offering training courses only for pre-primary school teachers and

- (b) Pedagogical Academies offering training courses for primary school teachers.

In total, there are only four Schools of Nipiagogon and fourteen Pedagogical Academies for the educational needs of the state. These institutions and their locations were the following in 1982 (2):

Schools of Nipiagogon

- (1) School of Nipiagogon in Athens
- (2) School of Nipiagogon in Thessaloniki
- (3) School of Nipiagogon in Karditsa
- (4) School of Nipiagogon in Chanía, Crete.

Pedagogical Academies

- (1) Marasleios Pedagogical Academy of Athens
- (2) Arsakeios Pedagogical Academy of Psychico, Athens
- (3) Sarifeios Pedagogical Academy of Alexandroupolis
- (4) Pedagogical Academy of Heraclion, Crete
- (5) Pedagogical Academy of Thessaloniki
- (6) Sosimea Pedagogical Academy of Joannina
- (7) Pedagogical Academy of Lamia
- (8) Pedagogical Academy of Larisa
- (9) Pedagogical Academy of Mitilini, Mitilini
- (10) Ralleios Pedagogical Academy of Peraias
- (11) Pedagogical Academy of Rodos, Rodos
- (12) Pedagogical Academy of Tripolis
- (13) Pedagogical Academy of Florina
- (14) Pedagogical Academy of Patras

4.1.2 Admission of Students to Teacher Training Colleges

Until 1964, in all institutions of tertiary education

students were admitted after special entrance examinations, taken at the site of each school. From 1964 to 1980 the system changed and the Ministry of National Education and Religion replaced the different institutional examinations by uniform national examinations. At the beginning these admission procedures applied only to candidates for universities but since 1970 candidates for teacher training colleges had also to pass entrance examinations on the national basis along side the candidates for universities.

The "New Democracy" political party initiated new selection procedures in 1978-1979 for all students entering higher and highest education. The national entrance examinations were abolished, and a system of Panhellenic examinations took their place (3).

The system of Panhellenic examinations introduced some differences between the candidates to higher and highest institutions. Both kinds of candidates were admitted on the basis,

- (a) of their preference and
- (b) of the total deriving from the sum of
  - (i) the progress mark at the end of the second class of the Lyceum,
  - (ii) the progress mark at the Lyceum School Leaving Certificate and
  - (iii) for the university candidates the progress marks on composition and optional subjects which they elected to follow in the second and third year of Lyceum, obtained through the two Panhellenic examinations on a nation-wide scale at the end of the second and third years of Lyceum and

for Teacher Training Colleges and other higher institutions graduates the progress marks on certain subjects in the second and third class of Lyceum, without participating in the Panhellenic examinations.

These progress marks for both kinds of candidates were multiplied by a particular coefficient for each school, based on the weights which have been assigned by the school to particular subjects.

Candidates for the Teacher Training Colleges had to get satisfactory progress marks in Modern Greek, Mathematics, Physics and History while for Universities it was dependent on the type of school. For example, candidates for the School of Theology, Philosophy, Law and Economics had to get progress marks in Composition, Ancient Greek, History and Latin, while for the Polytechnic, Physiomathematics, and Medical Schools, in Composition, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Drawing (only for the future architects).

The following tables show the factors of admission of students in Teacher Training Colleges and Highest educational establishment of the country (4).

The number of students admitted to each school and training college was limited depending on the decision of the Ministry of Education based on the recommendations of the Higher and Highest Institutions.

Table 4

Factors for admission of students to Teacher Training Colleges  
before the Reform

	Teacher Training Colleges	
	Pedagogical Academies	Schools of Nipiagogon
Lyceum Leaving Certificate	80	80
Modern Greek	60	60
Mathematics	40	40
Physics	30	30
History	40	40
Total	250	250

Table 5

Factors for admission of students to University Schools of  
Philosophy, Theology, Law and Economics  
before the Reform

	Philosophy	Theology	Law	Economics
Lyceum Leaving Certificate	50	50	50	50
Composition	60	60	60	60
Ancient Greek	60	60	60	50
History	50	60	60	80
Latin	30	20	20	10
Total	250	250	250	250

Source: Ministry of Education and Religion Panhellenic  
Examinations, Athens, 1979, p. 25.



Entrance to Teachers' Colleges applied some more requirements which were excluded from the candidates of other institutions. Intending pre-school and primary school teachers should be approved as "physically and psychologically healthy" with "excellent conduct" before they would be admitted to training colleges.

Finally, it should be mentioned that as well as the total number of successful candidates there was a small number of candidates who entered in to higher and highest educational establishments without the normal requirements. These were usually foreign students or graduates of other schools (5).

Generally speaking admission to Teacher Training Institutions was very competitive. In 1978-79 candidates to these institutions numbered 10,230 compared to the 2,110 available places - a ratio of about 5 to 1 (6).

How far could these selection procedures justify satisfactory entry for the preparation of the teaching profession?

In the light of the 1966 ILO/UNESCO Committee's recommendation, it has been stated in a previous discussion that school background, academic achievement and personal qualifications should be considered the basic criteria which could justify students' selection in to the teaching preparation programmes. Certainly access to both kinds of teacher training colleges presupposed,

- (a) the completion of primary and full secondary education and
- (b) a high academic competence in some particularly teaching subjects and a relevant high score in the Lyceum-school marks.

It is the third consideration of personal qualifications which set up some kind of different requirements in comparison with entrance to other professional preparation courses.

Within the Greek admission procedures these were applied in the minimum criteria of personal conduct, physical and psychological health and sex differences -in the case of Schools of Nipiagogon where were admitted only female candidates.

Considering the view that "entry to the professions depends mainly upon one's ability to acquire a lengthy formal education" (7) the preceding type of admission procedures have created problems of equality of opportunity in the country while at the same time was among the factors working towards the decline of the teaching profession.

It could be argued that this state legislation on entrance to Teacher Training Colleges standards ensured a reasonable background for all students applying to study in these colleges and later to offer their services within the state. The issue involves the danger of the state's inflexibility in terms of administration, but this is balanced by the effort to secure a minimum equality of education for all children in the state.

#### 4.1.3 Length of Courses in Teacher Training Colleges

Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon offered a two year certificate course after the completion of full secondary education.

For about half a century it has remained on the same level. In comparison with the other higher institutions of the same level of tertiary education such as the Higher Schools of

Home Economics and the National Academy of Physical Education, the disparity between the length of initial training is interesting. The first required three years of study while the latter four.

- In comparison with the university institutions, the length of time required in Teacher Training Colleges was half or less of that required in University Schools because it was,
- (a) four years for those who studied Theology, Philosophy, Law, Physics, Mathematics, Economics and Commercial Sciences, Political Sciences and Industrial Studies.
  - (b) Five years for those who studied Agriculture and Forestry, Veterinary Medicine, Dentistry, and Engineering.
  - (c) Six years for Medicine.

Thus the short length of time in Teacher Training Colleges is considered as an indication of the low priorities in teacher education and is, in itself, proof of the qualitative dissimilarity among the other professional groups and the teaching profession. Thus the extension of the study period and the improvement in the quality of studies was the basic demand of students in teacher training colleges. Certainly it was not just the need to add one or two more years in the length of preparation programmes but also necessary to secure both the scientific formation and the preservice education of pre-primary and primary school teachers with a special professional diploma if it was to secure the full utilisation of the educational system (8).

In comparison with the professional requirements this minimum preparation period offered by the teacher training colleges, according to the State requirements, was insufficient .

In this sense, these establishments had no chance of operating as an area in which educational problems could be defined and analysed and in general to fulfil their complex social role.

#### 4.1.4 Content of Studies in Teacher Training Colleges

The content of courses taken by students preparing for teaching was different between Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon but did not vary with the same type of institutions. This uniformity was justified by the fact that curricula issues, instructions and time allocated to the teaching subjects were laid down by the Ministry of National Education and Religion for both kinds of colleges.

#### 4.1.4 (a) Assessment of content in Teacher Training Colleges Related to the Issues of Selection, Organisation and Evaluation

Appendices III(9), IV(10), V (11), VI (12) provide a full detailed information about the actual content of the studies, the amount of time allocated to them every week and each year separately and the total number of teaching subjects within the period of two years studies.

However, a closer look at these tables indicates the following characteristics,

- (a) The existence of a great number of teaching subjects and many teaching hours per week (in Pedagogical Academies 23 subjects within 35 weekly hours in the first year and 33 hours in the second year. In Schools for Kindergarten Teachers 18 subjects within

31 weekly hours for the first year and 27 hours for the second year. The time devoted to the teaching practice is excluded, since it is not defined clearly).

- (b) The subjects were mainly theoretical in essence.
- (c) All the subjects were compulsory for the students regardless of their personal abilities, interests and preferences.
- (d) The percentage distribution of the ingredients of these programmes in terms of the areas of study recommended by the 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendation Committee were,

	<u>Pedagogical Academies</u>	<u>Schools for Kindergarten Teachers</u>
(1) General Studies	70.5 %	65.5 %
(2) Professional Studies	22.0 %	20.0 %
(3) Specialised Studies	7.5 %	14.5 %

Assessing these characteristics of the Teacher Training College curriculum and content leads us to the following basic assumptions which underlied pre-primary and primary teacher education in Greece:

- (1) From the standpoint of the selection of content the questions of "how" and "what" is selected should be relevant with the philosophy which formed these programmes.

In the light of the presentation of content of studies in both kinds of teacher training colleges we can distinguish two basic criteria for its selection. First, that teachers' knowledge should realise the historical continuity of the Greek nation through the transmission of religious, national, social

and political values of the system.

Second, it should harmonise the role of cultural transmission with the concept of traditional school in educational and teaching practice.

In this sense the underlying philosophy was, (13)

"a teacher is a "good teacher" if he knows the "what" of teaching (i.e. the subject matter). If added to this there is some knowledge of the "how" of teaching (i.e. the method) then it is taken for granted that the teacher will be able to "transfer" knowledge, and the pupil to memorise and reproduce it...  
... Thus even today... we are continuing to train teachers almost "to transmit knowledge", "to apply methods" and "to adapt their pupils to fit their own yardsticks" (14).

On the basis of these criteria of content selection the programme of studies was in conflict "with the aims and objectives of education for a profound and radical change in the established educational mentality which has led to the current state of stagnation in the schools"(15).

This point reflects that the nature of selection criteria were basically to promote social and educational stability, a characteristic feature of the general aims of the Greek educational system for a long time. Clearly the Platonic assumptions about the purpose of education are underlined here.

From the sociological point of view such selection criteria contributed to the reproduction of social classes since,

"acceptance of the view that education should have a unified aim at all levels means that, if education is dogmatic, autocratic and undemocratic in the elementary school, it will similarly be dogmatic, autocratic and undemocratic in post-secondary educational establishments also. Furthermore, the type of education and work carried out in the teacher training schools will re-emerge when the students become teachers. There is a vicious circle in effect." (16)

From the professional point of view these criteria do

not represent a genuinely comprehensive response to the challenge of the professionalisation of the teaching profession.

Teacher training could be characterised as professional training when the programme involves the content of a specialised body of knowledge, skill, and techniques based on intellectual principles. Regarding the content of teacher training colleges it is difficult for someone to see how these requirements meet the criteria for the actual content selection.

(2) From the standpoint of the content organisation, the percentage distribution of the ingredients of general studies, professional and specialised studies indicate the following:

- (a) the relatively high proportion of the time allowed to subjects on general studies,
- (b) the comparatively small proportion of the time devoted to the study of theories of education.

The professional education was almost defined in terms of studies in pedagogy. Instruction in the relevant branches of educational theory had been over-shadowed by general concepts which did not reveal deep knowledge based on intellectual principles.

- (c) Specialised studies are concentrated mainly on psychology of general nature. The absence of cognitive, social, psychology of language, psychology of reading and writing, learning problems, etc., which have fundamental importance related to education is very apparent. (17).

A recent research, however, (Porpodas C.D., 1985) (18) showed that,

"The teachers themselves... have not only confirmed, but also explained the need for the student teachers to receive instruction in educational psychology at a profound level, a need which the PAs study programme virtually ignores, by placing too low a value upon it".

Teaching methods were characterised with the monologue style of "ex cathedra" teaching (19).

The usual method of teaching was oral presentation which had the form of didactic monologues, scattered with questions. There were no special techniques of teaching in order to provide an adequate means of transmitting knowledge.

Again seminar activities and workshops were common as well as dialogues between the teachers and the students.

Textbooks and other teaching materials were provided by the Ministry of Education. Usually these were the works of teachers from Greek universities or from the teacher colleges.

(3) From the standpoint of the content evaluation there was never a clear set of curricula objectives of Teacher Training Colleges in a way to reflect the particular, technological and professional demands confronting the pre-primary and primary school teachers in schools. Thus the issue will not draw more attention in the present discussion.

#### 4.1.5 Examination and Certification Procedures in Teacher Training Colleges

Certification procedures for the graduates took place after the successfully completed programme of two years studies and involved the combination of two issues - attendance and examination.

##### (a) Attendance

Attendance to the academic lectures was compulsory



for all students as well as to the teaching practice and the workshops of theoretical subjects.

At the end of the duration of studies students' participation should be characterised as "with nothing missing". This definition presupposed students' attendance at least  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the total hours within the academic year, otherwise either he would not be promoted to the next year, or because of only a minimum attendance at the workshops, he would not pass the subject.

(b) Examination

There were three types of examination defined by the Law: written, oral and practical. The marking system in teacher training colleges covered a range from zero to 10, with 5 the lowest passing mark. The typical marking scale was as follows:

Excellent	10-9
Very Good	7-8
Good	6-5

Successful candidates for teaching should have graduation grade in each subject at least 5. After passing all courses and successfully completing written and oral examinations in all subjects, students were awarded a "Ptychion" which was certified by the Ministry of National Education and Religion.

All these requirements were regulated by the State. In comparison with the university graduates where both the curricula content and the certification procedures were defined and regulated by the ordinary professors of the relevant subjects and there was only a minimum of compulsory attendance of students, the heavy programme of studies in Teacher Training Colleges and the compulsory attendance of students all contributed to the lower level of studies.

According to P. Polychronopoulos (20), the

"the programme of studies in Pedagogical Academies - is judged as adequate, inflexible, not contemporary. The administrative system is highly centralised... teaching methods and relationships between teacher educators and students are strict, typical and authoritarian and very often students were imposed in punishments for the infringement of strict and authoritarian regulations."

The philosophy which was exercised on the issues of selection, length of studies, curricula and content, and certification left the teacher education system virtually unaffected by contemporary developments in the field of educational theory, psychology, child development and learning as well as in the field of social and cultural changes of the Greek context.

Thus by keeping the system of teacher training at this level the state was continuing to train the traditional teacher prototype until 1982. It can be said however that to some extent the teaching personnel in Teacher Training Colleges contributed to this kind of development.

#### 4.1.6 The Staff of Teacher Training Colleges

If we accept the view that the success of a school is mainly determined by the quality of its teachers then the staff of teacher training colleges had a comparatively important role to play.

A possible classification might be that according to the specialisation of teacher educators, (21)

- (a) Teachers of pedagogical and psychological subjects
- (b) Teachers of academic disciplines
- (c) Teachers of "special" subjects like art, music, physical education etc.

The majority of teachers of pedagogical and psycho-

logical subjects were graduates of the Teacher Training Colleges who, according to the law, had professional training and post-graduate studies (masters or doctorate) in a recognised foreign university.

Information about their studies abroad confirm that one-third of them was in Great Britain while another third in Switzerland and France.

The teachers of academic disciplines and "special" subjects were university graduates, and only about 20 per cent of them were holders of post-graduate studies in Greek or foreign universities.

This guiding principle of Greek teacher education (pre-primary and primary) which was characterised by the duality of pedagogical training in foreign universities and academic specialisation within the country, according to Kazamia (22),

"demonstrates certain inadequacies of the Greek system and some assumptions about the qualifications of those responsible for the training of elementary school teachers. The absence of post-graduate studies in education (pedagogics), in psychology and in other areas related to the professional training of teachers, is quite well known. So overseas students are considered necessary. On the other hand, graduate studies in the other areas - in special and in general education are not considered indispensable."

It is feasible that this pattern of the teaching personnel, having well established by law, contributed towards reducing the high standing of the institutions and the preparation of teachers for professional roles.

#### 4.1.7 Conclusions

The above account of the specific issues of pre-primary and primary teacher education before the reform leads

us to the conclusion that the failure of the system to achieve the principles of the professionalisation may be attributed to the following weaknesses:

- (a) the political, social and educational aims of the training colleges were to produce stability in accordance with the rest of the educational system. This could explain the fact that there was no substantial change in their aims for the 50 years period since their establishment.
- (b) The issues of modernisation and democratisation were in a sharp contrast with the traditional forms of organisation and well-established practices which have been established under the organisation and administration of training colleges.
- (c) The type of institutions, their low status and their duration of studies, in comparison to the education of secondary school teachers, were the source for inequality of opportunity between the members of the same profession.
- (d) The theoretical and practical aspects of the programme in terms of structure, subjects, content of instruction, distribution of time, teaching methods and evaluation, all failed to educate for democracy and social change.

On the contrary they trained the model of the teacher which was in contrast with the model actually required in the schools, in the community and Greek society.

The whole programme was entirely academic without giving the teacher any opportunity to study how the child develops, how he learns, how to become an active member of society.

The virtual non-existence of Pedagogical Sciences and theories relevant to education as well as the scientific study of the child and his education as subjects of study in Teacher Training Colleges were contributed to the characterisation of the future teacher as semi-educated and his pre-service education as vocational preparation. Under these circumstances the graduates of these colleges could not claim any scientific professional identity in terms of specialists in the sciences of education.

But this kind of preparation was constantly confronted by the needs of the Greek society - especially after the sixties - for a modern education. This is because modern Greek education presupposed a form of teacher preparation which would provide the teacher with an adequate background in educational sciences in order to educate pupils as fully aware and responsible citizens. In other words, there was the need for a model teacher with scientific identity and hence a professional teacher.

In the light of the above discussion teachers' demand for a real professional preparation - before the reform-is understood as a way to be educated not only in subject-matter studies (what) but more in pedagogical sciences and theories of education (how).

The realisation of such type of preparation, however, was expected to be provided in the new University Pedagogical Departments which have been established by the 1982 Law.

Thus the second section of this chapter investigates these specific issues of teacher education under the proposed changes.

## SECTION II

### SPECIFIC ISSUES OF PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION AFTER THE REFORM: THE CASE OF UNIVERSITY PEDAGOGICAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

#### 4.2.1 Introduction

From what has been said in the first section of this chapter we can understand that the introduction of University Pedagogical Departments by the 1982 Law is expected to set the conditions necessary for a different preparatory course for teachers in terms of admission procedures, length of courses, content of studies and certification.

Before we examine how these issues have been changed after the policy changes, it is considered necessary to present a brief description of the Greek university level institutions within which the new Pedagogical Departments have been formed.

#### 4.2.2 The Characteristics of Greek Universities

University-level education in Greece is at the anotati, or "highest" level of tertiary education and the educational establishments which belong to this level are called Anotata Ekpedeftika Idrimata - (A.E.I.) (Higher Educational Institutions). It is offered in 17 public institutions of university level. Among them some universities offer the full range of academic disciplines and subjects, some others offer a specialised variety like the technical universities - while some others have a specific orientation to economics and management.

According to the constitution, they are "semi-independent" establishments, financed by the State and governed by public law. Article 16, paragraph 5, of the 1975 Constitution of Greece stipulates that,

"Education at university level shall be provided exclusively by institutions which are fully self-governed public law corporate bodies. These Institutions shall operate under the supervision of the State, and are entitled to financial assistance thereof; they shall operate on the basis of their statutory laws. Merging or splitting of university level institutions may take place, notwithstanding any contrary provisions, as a Law shall provide. A special law shall define all matters pertaining to student associations, and the participation of students therein."

University admission is governed by entrance examinations which are highly competitive and has become progressively more difficult.

### Background

The first stage in the development of university level establishments in Greece extended from 1837, when the University of Athens was founded, until the sixties. During this period there were three universities and six university schools all located either in Athens, Piraeus or Thessaloniki.

The second stage which is still continuing is characterised by expansion, decentralisation and changes in the structure and organisation. During this period university level institutions have been established in Patras, Ioannina, Crete, Thrace, Ionian University, University of Aegean, University of Attica and University of Thessaly.

### Structure and Organisation

The 1982 Law on "The structure and functioning of highest institutions" introduced a new structure in the Universities.

- (a) Before the 1982 Law, the smallest academic and administrative unit was the Chair which was administered by a Professor who was responsible for the organisation of instruction in one or more closely-related subjects.

The ordinary professor of the Chair represented the academic speciality of his chair and in this way he was actually identified with the knowledge of this academic field.

A group of Chairs made the Division, a bigger unit and several Divisions composed the School which was administered by its faculty (23). The School was the basic academic unit which determined many issues in relation to the academic fields belonging to it, (for example, programmes of studies, elections of professors, etc.). The full professors of each school elected the Dean of the School for one or two year periods and the General Assembly of full professors elected the Vice-Rector for the same period.

The highest administrative body of the university was the Senate which was composed by the Rector, Pro-Rectors, Vice-Rectors, the Deans of the Schools of the University and one Senator from each of the Schools (24).

The teaching personnel was divided into the senior staff (full professors, associate professors, assistant professors) and junior staff (specialised scientists, chief assistants and assistants).

The duration of studies varied from School to School (4-6 years). The curricula was divided into academic years (from October to May) and students had to pass all taught subjects in order to register for the next academic year.

At the end of the final year of studies students had to sit for final degree examinations, written or oral (25).



- (b) The 1982 Law introduced new structures in Greek Universities. According to it the Highest Educational Institutions consist of Schools which comprise a number of related disciplines
- The Schools are divided into Departments. The department constitutes the basic functional academic unit and covers the field of knowledge of a single discipline. The course of studies offered by a department leads to a common university degree...
- (i) The departments are divided in to sections.
- (ii) The section coordinates the instruction of part of the field of knowledge with which the department deals; it corresponds to a specialised field of science...
- (iii) Members of the teaching and research staff of each section could belong to another section also only in exceptional cases. Their participation then is restricted only to teaching and research activities.
- (iv) Where the number of members of the teaching and research staff and the field of knowledge of the department do not allow its division into sections, the division of the department into sections is not mandatory.
- The Institution is administered by collective administrative bodies (University Senate, General Assemblies of Schools, Departments and Sections) made up of all the teaching staff as well as students' representatives (25-30 per cent of the total number of members of the collective body).
- The teaching personnel is re-classified in four ranks: the ranks of professor, associate professor, assistant professor and lecturer. All together consist the so-

called unified teaching personnel which is no longer divided in to senior and junior staff.

The Law divides the study programme, not in academic years, but in semesters.

According to the regulations of undergraduate studies the teaching work and the curriculum (26) are based on the principles,

- (1) Teaching activity is divided in to semester courses including,
  - (i) self-contained teaching of a subject;
  - (ii) tutorial classes and tutorial exercises;
  - (iii) laboratory and clinical training and, in general, the practical training of students; and
  - (iv) supervision of dissertations and arrangement of seminars, awareness of and access to literature in Greek and foreign languages.
- (2) The curriculum contains the titles of the compulsory courses and the permitted and required elective courses, their content, the number of hours per week... and the sequential order or the interdependence of the courses.
- (3) The curriculum is adjusted to the minimum possible numbers of semesters required for graduation...; it cannot be less than eight semesters.
- (4) Each course provides a certain number of "credit units". A credit unit corresponds to one teaching hour per week for one semester for a self-contained course, and from one to three teaching or training hours per week for one semester in other kinds of teaching in accordance with the decision of the departmental general assembly. The curriculum includes also the minimum number of credit

units required for graduation.

- (5) The allocation of courses to particular semesters is indicative and not compulsory for students. Nevertheless, the allocation is adjusted to the conditions of full-time studies, the minimum possible number of semesters required for graduation, and the sequential order of the prerequisite and dependent courses.
- (6) Mandatory electives cover at least one quarter of the curriculum.
- (7) Courses belonging to a discipline of a section of other departments of the same or another school may also be included in each curriculum.

The graduation of the students is based on the completion of his studies and the acquisition of the required number of credit units.

The final award is entitled Ptychio. The new Law has established The National Council for Higher Education, whose purpose is to offer the government suggestions on highest educational issues such as the funding of new Universities, or Schools or Departments, their structure and professional orientations, the number of admitted students to Highest Educational Institutions, the allocation of funds for education and research, the creation of new staff positions, new specialisations, etc. Before the Law all these issues were a prerogative of the State.

In reference to the introduction of new schools or departments the Law states that once a decision has been taken by the National Council of Higher Education and the Senate of individual higher educational institutions they can be established, merged or divided by Presidential decree issued on recommendation

of the Ministerial Council. This could be done when it is necessary to meet the specific needs for the regional development and decentralisation of highest education, or the improvement of new scientific and technological fields, or field of interdisciplinary nature, which are considered crucial to the social and economic development of the function of a highest educational institution, school or department.

It was on the basis of this provision that the Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers have been established.

A thorough distinction should be made however between these new departments and the pedagogical sections of the Schools of Philosophy which exist in the Universities of Athens, Thessaloniki, Ioannina and Krete. The Schools of Philosophy with the Schools of Physics, Mathematics and Theology are the basic schools which used to educate secondary school teachers

All the graduates of the Schools of Philosophy, despite the specialised department and section they have chosen to study during their course, will work in secondary education as philologists. Precisely, there are three basic departments in each Philosophical School with different specialised sections in each one. They are, (27)

- (i) The Department of Philology with specialised sections in Classical Philology, Middle Ages and Modern Greek Philology and Linguistics.
- (ii) The Department of History-Archaeology with specialised sections in History, Archaeology and Folklore.
- (iii) The Department of Philosophy-Pedagogics-Psychology with specialised sections in Philosophy, Pedagogue and Psychology.

The existence of Philosophy-Pedagogy and Psychology under the same department was before the reform and is still so today.

For historical reasons the first professorship for pedagogy was set up in 1910 at the Philosophical School of the University of Athens and since then each new university followed this line.

This institutional setting however has influenced significantly the development of Pedagogical Sciences in Greece for two reasons.

First, pedagogy had never been seen as autonomous scientific field in education but had always philosophical or philological dimensions.

These sections of Pedagogics, within the departments of Philosophy, never offered taught subjects relevant to the theories of education as for example Pedagogical Psychology, Sociology of Education, History of Education, Didactics and Methodology, etc. This was because on the one hand they never had their own group of students devoted to the study of pedagogics only, since students had also to study philosophical subjects. On the other hand the teaching personnel was never specialised in the sciences of pedagogy, neither had the majority of them had teaching experience in secondary schools (28).

Despite this, the existence of these departments cultivated the assumption that the science of pedagogy – in its theoretical dimension – was only for the philosophers and not for the other teachers of pre-primary and primary schools.

The idea that pedagogy is a "philological branch" has been highly criticised by many progressive educators and even fifty years ago, D. Glenos used to comment that "many classical

philologists are amateur pedagogues" (29).

But the development of pedagogy within the Schools of Philosophy had also been influenced by the ideology and the political orientation of the professors of Pedagogy.

As we have stated earlier, university structure and organisation before the reform, was based on the chair system, where the ordinary professor monopolised the knowledge of his field and this... academic specialty in turn used to be identified and represented by the chair professor inside and outside the university (30).

But in Greece, in the field of education, we have shown in the first section of chapter II, academic speciality was shaped to a large extent by sociological values directed in two directions: traditional conservative and progressive liberal.

In the light of the above discussions the interweave between academic speciality and political orientation of the chair professor in the Greek context had important consequences not only for the development of the knowledge itself but also for the social, educational and cultural development of the country.

The first Professor of Pedagogy at the School of Philosophy of the University of Athens (1910) was N. Exarchopoulos, a strong follower of the right wing (conservative) ideology, the traditional classical ideas and Christian morality. He was Professor of Pedagogue for fifty years - until 1960 - and his political and educational ideas have prevailed literally in the field of education and the training of teachers as well.

During this period the coexistence of Philosophy and Pedagogue had been developed on the basis that "the ancient Greeks knew everything" and so "the philologist" who was the representative

of the Classical Greeks in contemporary life knew everything" (31).

In the face of such prevailing ideology we can understand why the pedagogical sciences had never been taught as teaching subjects in teacher training colleges, since they were part - even in theoretical terms - of the University scientific education which in turn had been considered unnecessary for the teachers of young children. Moreover, we can understand why the development of pedagogy through the philosophical classical studies have been grown as a historico-philosophical branch and not as a separate science based on the school of reality and of systematic research.

But such development, supported mainly by the traditional educational groups of the country, created a trend of historical-philological pedagogy, which acted against the actual trends of contemporary pedagogy, supported basically by the progressive part of educationists.

Ch.Fragos (32) parallels this phenomenon with "the Katharevousa language which did not allow the development of real modern Greek language". Thus, we can understand further why pre-primary and primary school teachers never asked to be educated in the pedagogical sections of the Philosophical Schools in various universities, but they insisted on the establishment of new departments.

The new Pedagogical University Departments do not belong either to any School of Philosophy nor other School in the Universities. Besides, they are closely related with the determination of the State and the efforts of the progressive educational groups to put the foundations of the development of contemporary pedagogy based on current scientific research evidences on the issues of education and on the broad issue of Greek Pedeia.

The new departments are functioning in the same universities where there are Schools of Philosophy with Pedagogical sections. The basic assumption of such an establishment was that on the one hand the new departments could be supported at the beginning by the Philosophical Schools either by the provision of teaching equipment or teaching personnel, and on the other hand gradually both pedagogical departments could be united to provide equally educated teaching personnel for the Greek schools (kindergarten, primary and secondary level).

The collision between the supporters of traditional education and the proposers of the new structure of thought in social, educational and psychological problems was inevitable. And indeed this "is realised today in a violent way in our country under the surface of calm weather" (33). There is no doubt that the new pedagogical departments will gradually be affected in their effectiveness by these problems.

Thus the following discussion will analyse the specific issues of teacher education after the policy change in order to examine on the one side how far these issues meet the desirable requirements of the teaching profession and on the other side to mark which issue is possible to be influenced by the traditional attitudes in a way that would prevent teachers' efforts for professionalisation.

#### 4.2.3 The University Pedagogical Departments for the Education of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers

The general principles underlying the purpose of Highest Educational Institutions in Greece and so the new Pedagogical Departments are: (35)

- (1) The government must provide higher education to every



Greek citizen who wishes to receive it, in accordance with the procedures each time determined by law.

- (2) Higher education is to be given in the higher educational institutions the purpose of which is:
- (i) to produce and impart knowledge through research and instruction and to develop the arts;
  - (ii) to contribute to the development of responsible persons with scientific, social, cultural and political conscience and to supply the means necessary to secure their education, to pursue scientific and professional careers; and
  - (iii) to contribute to the effort to meet the social, cultural and developmental needs in our country.
- (3) Within the framework of their duties, the higher educational institutions should contribute to meeting the needs for continuing education and continuous adult education.

The 1982 Law, Article 46 (35) introduced the,

"Pedagogical departments for primary school teachers' education and kindergarten teachers in the Universities of Athens, Thessaloniki, Patras, Ioannina, Thrake and Krete."

These departments started to operate from the academic year 1984-85. Their particular aims are: (36)

- (1) To develop and impart pedagogical sciences through academic and applied teaching and research;
- (2) To supply the means necessary to secure graduates' education to pursue scientific and professional careers;
- (3) To contribute to the effort to meet growing demands of education and thus raising the equality level in relation with Pedagogical issues;

- (4) To contribute to the effort to confront and solve pedagogical problems in general.

The introduction of new university departments for the education of teachers for young children took place within the overall effort of the Socialist Government to establish democracy and equality of opportunity in the state, society and the teaching profession.

According to the requirements of the model of the teaching profession, the new type of institutional setting fulfils entirely the criteria of the profession and contributes to the expectations of teachers for their demanding new professional roles.

Besides, in these institutions future teachers will not be educated far away from the other professions but will mix with a variety of other people with different career intentions and will pursue their own learning to an advanced stage.

#### 4.2.4 Admission of Students to the Pedagogical Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers

The 1982 Law did not deal at all with the methods of student selection in the highest educational institutions.

Admission procedures is basically a very considerable political issue which is treated in a different way by each government in Greece.

In this sense the Panhellenic system which existed before the reform was abolished by the PASOK Government, and it has been replaced by the General Examination.

According to this every graduate of Lyceum is entitled to seek access to a tertiary institution.

The policy of selection applies to a policy of limiting

the number of places made available in higher and highest educational establishments.

According to the new policy (37), selection is based on,

- (a) the candidate's school or department preference and
- (b) the total marking derived from the following:
  - (1) The average grade at the end of the first and the second class of the Lyceum as well as the average grade in the Lyceum school leaving certificate. These all together correspond to 25 per cent share of the total marking and in particular 5 per cent for the first class, 8 per cent for the second and 12 per cent for the graduation certificate.
  - (2) The average grade in the general examinations which take place in June at the end of the third class of Lyceum in a special bunch of subjects. There are four such bunches of subjects which correspond to various schools or departments of all tertiary education. More precisely the first bunch includes composition, mathematics, physics and chemistry. The second bunch includes composition, biology, anthropology, physics and chemistry. The third bunch includes composition, ancient Greek, history and Latin.

Candidates for the University Pedagogical Department have to be prepared in the subjects of the third bunch similar to the other candidates to the Philology and Law (38).

The average grade of the General Examinations share the 75 per cent of the total marking.

However, for some schools and departments there are

additional requirements. Their mark is added to the total marking multiplied by the number twenty. The rationale of the new policy is based upon the following principles:

- (a) University preparation will be confined to the third year of the Lyceum in the subjects which have been taught in the Lyceum. It is an effort to end the private Frontistirio system, a network of back street intensive schools where secondary school students spend at least three hours after school, year after year.
- (b) It is believed that it is a freer system because selection takes into account the general progress of students conducted during the period of the three-year in Lyceum. Thus the system offers opportunities to improve poor performance in one examination and also forces the student to progress and hence to consolidate better the knowledge he acquired during the Lyceum period.
- (c) Unsuccessful candidates have the right to apply unlimited times for the General Examination during the next year for a place to post-secondary education if they wish to improve their total marking. The establishment of 220 Post-Lyceum Preparatory Centres through all the country aims to prepare the unsuccessful candidates for the coming year.

It is believed that this Institution will bridge the gap between geographical social and class inequalities of students' opportunities in further education, it will stop the emigration of unsuccessful candidates abroad and it will contribute to the social and economic development of rural schools (39).

The number of places in each faculty is determined each year by the Ministry of Education based on the proposals of the National Council for Higher Education.

Under the new system of admission to universities the teacher education programmes are open to all candidates who have completed full secondary education and have passed successfully the General Examinations. There is not any more any kind of discrimination either in terms of sex or in terms of physical development as it was before.

In comparison with entrance to other professional preparation courses it is believed that teacher education courses enjoy the same qualitative and quantitative criteria of selection.

Such a policy certainly tends to upgrade the status of the new teacher education programmes and consequently the future members of the teaching profession.

#### 4.2.5 The Length of Courses in the University Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers

Among the most fundamental provision of the 1982 Law is the lengthening of pre-primary and primary school teachers' course of preparation from two to four years.

Article 26 of the Law states that the new pedagogical departments for the education of teachers for young children,

"offer length of studies at least eight semesters, in accordance with the regulations of the Law and the legislation governing the universities" (40).

The four years of preparation study, similar to the other professional groups which are relevant to teaching, is an indication of serious transformation from teacher training to teacher education.

On the one hand it is an innovation which accords

with the high quality of studies and better teachers' preparation and on the other hand contributes to a higher prestige of the teacher, regardless of the level of school he taught and offers justification for a higher income.

The implementation of the reform policy on teacher education is still going on and it is too early to attempt an evaluation of their efficacy. However, although it is not possible to draw any definitive conclusions as to the full effects of the new institutional reforms, in the light of relevant criteria of the profession theoretically the duration of four years studies seems to be an important development towards the fulfillment of the expectations of the teaching profession.

#### 4.2.6 The Content of Studies in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers

According to the 1982 Law,

"Academic freedom in teaching and research as well as free exchange of ideas are safeguarded in the higher educational institutions" (41).

This is perhaps one of the most important provisions of the Law for the content of studies for pre-primary and primary school teachers.

Before the reform, the content of studies in Teacher Training Colleges was the pathway through which the official ideology was directed: thus shaping the function of the teacher, the schools' mechanisms and reproducing the desirable social stability at a certain level.

Besides the nature of the content itself, as was defined by the State,<sup>it</sup> never had the scientific character appropriate for a profession.

There is no doubt that this provision of the Law gives

an end to the intervention of the State and offers the power to the teaching staff to decide itself the appropriate criteria for the content selection and organisation.

Moreover it offers something more important: the possibility for the pre-primary and primary school teachers to be more active in the issue than they have been in the past in the sense that they could gain the control over the content.

Actually it seems that it is not feasible to draw a line of demarcation between "what" and "how" content is selected in general terms, because the content of studies in pedagogical departments varies from one university to another. However, it is expected that at least the new educational, social and ideological values underpinning the content would derive from a different philosophy from that of Teacher Training Colleges.

Indeed the relevant provision of the 1982 Law is lying on the principle that academic freedom "defines the essential content of the culture of a state, defines tomorrow's political, economic and social development" (42) and not the personal "independence of a few regular professors who guaranteed their ideologically uniform reproduction..." (43).

This is an important feature of the philosophy of change which is expected to form the basis of the Greek Universities after the 1982 Law. It is the philosophy which is,

"against integral knowledge and materialises the vision of... a university that will not supply the traditional contradiction between state and society and the consequent ideology of political neutrality" (44)

According to this view the definition of man is one,

"who combines with him, in cohesion, theoretical knowledge, with an internal sense of moral duty and its concrete practice. It requires... the deep political man. And this is why cultivation of science must aim at the cultivation of man. This man could not live in a society which remains static and tends to pre-shape its citizens" (45)

The Society of this Philosophy belongs to that state,

"which legalises its own dispute, accepting its everlasting redefinition by its citizens, and thus is open and sensitive to the messages of history. The vision of such a state passes through the education of the future and mainly through cohesion of scientific reflections" (46).

This principle of "education of the future" expressed by the Greek Premier, Andreas Papandreou, is very close to Dewey's view of education to prepare individuals to meet and anticipate future problems.

In the light of the above discussion we can understand that the Law theoretically follows the pragmatic theory of education where,

- (i) the starting point is not the subject but the knowledge which is needed for solving problems of living;
- (ii) the nature of man is determined by his active involvement in creating knowledge;
- (iii) the nature of knowledge is defined as relative, contingent and contextual and
- (iv) the nature of society should be democratic and changing.

If this philosophy forms the content of studies in the new University Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers, then their product will be that teacher who is able to make sound judgements, to discriminate, to take decisions, and to act upon them, not from habit, custom or tradition but from controlled thinking, and in so doing to prepare students for life and change.

In other words they will produce the type of teacher who as an educated man will act as an agent of change in the Greek democratic society.

However this is the teacher model required for



Greek society and should be actually trained in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education if it is to equip the,

"citizen of the year 2000 with proper structures, contents, options, and methods, to arm him both with the knowledge necessary for volition and a full consciousness of his acts" (47).

The above discussion leads to the conclusion that under these circumstances the criteria for content selection and organisation should be two-fold: social and personal. At the same time we add the professional requirements for the teaching preparation, as has been stated by the Unesco draft recommendations, because in the end the desirable model teacher should be a professionally educated man.

At the beginning, the government, in order to help those responsible for the structure and organisation of teaching programmes in the newly formed University Pedagogical Departments, set up a special committee to study the curricula and content of this new department in order to provide recommendations which could be used as a general guideline by the universities.

The committee was set up in the middle of 1983 after the B1/383/6.4.83 decision of the Ministry of Education, headed by a Professor of Pedagogics and consisted of six educationists, two representatives of the Ministry of Education and one from the Union of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers (48).

According to the Under-Secretary, Mr. Papatthemelis, the curricula of the former institutions have to be related on the one side with the professional preparation of intending teachers and on the other side with the development of creative thinking, freedom in judgement and democratic morals (49).

Thus the suggested programmes provide a very rough framework for the teaching subjects. (Appendix VII (50))

It is left to the Departmental General Assembly of each university, the responsibility to decide which of the former subjects should be taught or not, which should be obligatory or optional and whether other subjects should be added (51).

But how far was the Departmental General Assembly of these universities was informed and well prepared to make decisions in accordance with the proposed changes of the reform? and how far were members of the teaching staff ready to contribute to the evolution of contemporary pedagogical sciences introduced and oriented by the Socialist Party?

Having in our mind that education in Greece is a battle field between two educational groups, traditional and progressive which correspondingly are expressed through the right wing and the liberal political parties one might expect possible problems in the actual implementation of the issue.

In our view these problems will originate in the traditional beliefs and attitudes towards the aims of education in general and the kind of preparation of pre-primary and primary school teachers in particular and will rely on the different interpretation of the provision of the 1982 Law.

In this way the particular aims of the pedagogical departments of education stated as, "to develop and impart the pedagogical sciences through academic and applied teaching and research" could be interpreted by the traditional group as the development of pure knowledge of pedagogy, entirely theoretical and academic, expressed by the emphasis in subject matter (what) and not in the pedagogical elements (how).

Certainly this was neither the intention of the Law nor the demands of teachers before the policy change. In the face of

such interpretation the issue itself leads to the so-called conflict between "professors of academic subjects" and "professors of education" which has implications for control over the content of studies.

Broadly, the issue implies identification of the agencies and individuals which are involved in the decision-making process and the means they employ in the processes of policy making. These are the central theme of the following chapters, since the main concern of the study lies with the politics of teacher education. However, before we start the investigation it is necessary to analyse the final issue of the adopted taxonomy about the specific issues of teacher education on the examination and certification requirements for the graduates of the Pedagogical Departments of Education.

4.2.7 Examination and Certification Requirements for the Graduates of the University Pedagogical Departments of the Education for Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers

Certification requirements are based strictly on preparation requirements which apply to all graduates of the University, regardless of the type of course they studied. The student in University Pedagogical Departments completes his studies during the period of four academic years, which start on 1 September of each year and ends on 31 August of the next year.

The regulation of studies in higher educational institutions divides the educational work of each academic year into two semesters, which include at least thirteen full weeks for instruction and two for examinations (52).

The first semester begins in the second half of September and the second semester ends in the first half of June. Although the Senate determines the exact dates, in exceptional cases, the Ministry of National Education and Religion, on the recommendation of the Senate, fixes the beginning and the end of the two semesters beyond these dates, so that the number of thirteen full weeks for instruction is completed.

The grading of students in each course is the responsibility of the teacher who arranges, as he deems appropriate, written or oral examinations or laboratory exercises. If the student fails in a mandatory elective, he must either repeat it in subsequent semesters or substitute another elective for it. Furthermore, if he fails in the required course, he is obliged to repeat it during the next semester.

There are some courses which are classified as "pre-requisite" and are offered in both semesters of the year.

The final award is a degree entitled Ptychio which itself is a licence to teach either in primary schools or kindergartens, depending on the type of pedagogical department in which it has been awarded.

In fact, it could be noted, that Kinney's (53) arguments apply very well in the Greek certification procedures of teacher education because these are being used mainly as a civil service procedure for regulating employment and not as a pre-requisite for entrance in to the teaching profession. The latter asserts rather political power in the policy process than control in the selection and certification processes.

Indeed, according to the new Law 1566/1985 on "the structure and function of primary and secondary education", there is now a certain policy approach which will be used in the future for both kinds of graduates.

The policy defines clearly the preparation requirements of the teaching personnel in all kindergartens and primary schools of the country for the time being and for the future in order to avoid possible problems which probably could arise from the two different types of preparation.

Thus the appointment of nursery school teachers (54) requires either,

- (a) Ptychio of University Pedagogical Department for kindergarten teachers or
- (b) Diploma of Schools for Kindergarten Teachers. or
- (c) Diploma of Departments for training kindergarten teachers attached to Pedagogical Academies or,
- (d) a recognised Diploma or Ptychio or Certificate of Studies of a foreign University or Institution plus

a Greek Secondary School Leaving Certificate.

Analogous are the requirements for the primary school teacher (55). These are either a Ptychio of University Pedagogical Departments for primary school teachers or Diploma of Pedagogical Academy or the higher school of Church of Thessaloniki or recognised equal ptychio of a foreign institution plus the secondary school leaving certificate.

Paragraph 3 of Articles 3 and 4 make clear that three years after the abolition of Teacher Training Colleges candidates for appointment in state primary schools and kindergartens must hold the university degree of pedagogical departments or equivalent degree of a foreign university.

Thus within a few years all future teaching staff in public and private kindergartens and primary schools will have by Law to hold university degrees issued by university professors either of academic subjects or of education.

That means that the government have already decided to accept the university examination results as a certificate to teach.

At the moment it is regarded that the future graduates will be prepared satisfactorily to serve the aims of education determined by the State.

The fact that the pre-service education of secondary school teachers in universities has been characterised as theoretical and inadequate to serve the aims and purposes of the second level of Greek education, due to its entirely academic orientation, creates some kind of uncertainty about the future preparation of teachers for young children.

Certainly where the character of the content and therefore examination processes are determined by the progressive

professors of education, under the present political circumstances, it is believed that public authorities will be satisfied by the type of teachers' preparation.

Questions arise whether it will be the same if the pre-service education of pre-primary and primary school teachers is dominated by the University traditional attitudes to knowledge and professional training.

Has the State the right to interfere in this case, and how much power have the universities to resist?

And what about the professional control of teacher education as a basic issue to the evolution of teaching as a profession?

The analysis of these issues calls for a study of the politics of teacher education which will be the central concern of the following chapters.

In this chapter we have discussed the specific issues of teacher education in the light of the categories of the general taxonomy suggested in Chapter III, before and after the policy change introduced by the 1982 Law. These issues were the focus of demand for change before the reform and some of them invited criticism and gave rise to debates before and after between interested groups.

In order to investigate the nature of these debates in relation to the proposed changes for teachers' professionalisation, first of all we have to identify the participants - groups and individuals - in the policy process, to evaluate critically their power to influence decision making and to assess their actual contribution in the three stages of the policy change.

To do this, the next chapter is devoted to the study and identification of the Greek agencies relevant to teacher education policy reform.



References - Chapter IV

- (1) UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, Paris, 1966, p. 11.
- (2) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Kentro Ekpedeftikon meleton ke epimorphoseos, Dromi meta to Lykeio, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985, pp. 54-55.
- (3) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton Panellinies exetaseis, Athens, 1979, p. 25.
- (4) Ibid. p. 29.
- (5) Ethniko statistiko kentro Ellados, Statistiki tis Ekpedefsiss, Year 1978-79, Athens, 1982, p. 254.
- (6) Ministry of National Education and Cults, Directorate of European Committees, National Eyrydice Unit, The Education System in Greece, U.S.A., 1982, p. 46.
- (7) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice-Hall, 1956, New York, p. 10.
- (8) Pesmatzoglou, S., "Some Economic Aspects of Education" in, Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, p. 133, 1981.
- (9) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 21.5.1972, Vol. 1st, No. 237, Degree 343, Article 2.
- (10) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 10.1.1973, Vol.1st, No.2, Degree 7, Article 1.
- (11) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 21.5.1972, op.cit., Article 3.
- (12) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 10.1.1973, op.cit., Article 2.
- (13) Porpodas, C., "The Contribution of Educational Sciences to Primary Teacher Training in Greece" in, European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol.8, No.2, 1985, p. 151.
- (14) Ibid., p. 151.
- (15) Vingopoulos, I., "Pedeia ke Ekpedefsi tou neou Ellinismou" in, Debresse, M. and Mialaret, G., Pedagogikes Epistimes Vol. B. Istoria tis Ekpedefsiss, Athens, 1982, Diptycho, p. 715.
- (16) Gerou, T., "Ekpedeftiki politiki" (1975-1981), Athens, 1981, in Porpodas, C., op.cit., pp. 149-150.
- (17) Porpodas, C., "The Contribution of Educational Sciences to Primary Teacher Training in Greece, op.cit., p. 156.

- (18) Ibid.
- (19) Ibid.
- (20) Polychronopoulos, P., To provlima tis Ekpedefsis ton Ekpedeftikon ke i riziki lisi tou, Athens, 1982, p.8.
- (21) Kazamias, A. "The Education of Teachers: Elementary and Secondary in Greece" in European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 8, No.2, 1985, p. 125.
- (22) Ibid., p. 126.
- (23) Mauridis, L., "Reform and Development of Tertiary Education in Greece" in Council of Europe, Reform and Development of Tertiary Education in Southern Europe, Strasbourg, 1981, p. 192.
- (24) Ibid., p. 193.
- (25) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 16.7.1982, Vol. 1st, No. 87, Nomos, 1268, Article 6.
- (26) Ibid., Article 23, 24 paragraph 1 to paragraph 8.
- (27) Mavrogiorgos, G. "Scholia Ke apopsis" in Sychrony Ekpedefsi Vol. 30, September-October, 1986, p. 6.
- (28) Hondolidou, E., "Gia tin Ekpedefsi ton Ekpedeftikon" in Sychrony Ekpedefsi, Vol. 30, September-October 1986, p.103.
- (29) Glenos, D., "I Krisi tou Demotikismou" in Eklektes Selides, Vol. 2, Athens, 1971, p. 9.
- (30) Stathopoulos, M., "The New Greek Law (1982): Structure and Functioning of Higher Education Institutions", in CRE-Information, p. 33.
- (31) Fracos, C., "Ta ideadi, ta ousiodi ke ta stichiodi tis Pedeias" in Journal Prosanatolismi, June-July, 1976, Athens.
- (32) Fragos, C., "Prolegomena gia to rolo ton Pedagogikon Epistimon sti chora mas" in Debress, M. and Mialaret, G., Pedagogikes Epistimes, Vol A., Athens, 1981, Diptycho, Introduction, pp. 13-14.
- (33) Ibid.
- (34) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 16.7.1982, op.cit. Article 1 paragraphs 1 and 2.
- (35) Ibid., Article 46 paragraph 1.
- (36) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 7.9.83, No.116A, Degree No. 320, Article 2.

- (37) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Kentro Ekpedeftikon Meleton ke Epimorfoseos, Dromi meta to Lyceum, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985, pp. 1-3.
- (38) Ibid., p. 94.
- (39) Elliniki Demokratia, Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton O nomos 1268/82 gia tin domi ke litourgia ton anoteron Ekpedeftikon idrimaton, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1982, p.10.
- (40) Nomos 1268/82, op.cit., Article 46.
- (41) Ibid., Article 2, paragraph 1.
- (42) Papandreou, A., "Greece: The University of Yesterday and Tomorrow" Council of Europe, in Western European Education, Spring, 1987, Vol. XIX, No.1, p. 12.
- (43) Ibid., p. 10.
- (44) Ibid., p. 11.
- (45) Ibid., p. 14.
- (46) Ibid.
- (47) Ibid., p. 13.
- (48) By the B1/383/6.4.83 Decision of the Minister of Education the members of the committee for curricula planning in Pedagogical University Departments consisted of
- (1) Xohelis, P. (Professor of University of Salonika)
  - (2) Fragos, Ch. (Professor of University of Ioanina)
  - (3) Dalakas, Th. (Professor of Pedagogical Academy of Ioanina)
  - (4) Gerou, Th. (Special Counsellor of the Ministry of Education)
  - (5) Matsoukas, N. (Professor of University of Salonika)
  - (6) Xasiotis, J. (Professor of University of Salonika)
  - (7) Drosos, C. (Lecturer of Mathematics, University of Patras)
  - (8) Kontogianis, Ch. (Representative of Teachers' Union)
  - (9) Aginitou, M., (Secretary of the Ministry of Education).
- (49) Papathemelis, S., "O rolos tou daskalou stin organositon programmaton spoudon" in daily newspaper, Makedonia Thessaloniki, Greece, 6.8.1984.
- (50) Information collected from personal interview with the General Secretary of the University Pedagogical Department of Education, University of Thessaloniki.

- (51) Papathemelis, S., op.cit.
- (52) Nomos 1268/82, op.cit., Article 25, para. 1,2,3,12.
- (53) Stinnett, M.T. "Teacher Certification", in Review of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No.3, June, 1967, p. 254
- (54) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias & Thriskevmaton, Nomos Plesio arith. 1566 /85, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985, Article 12, paragraph 2.
- (55) Ibid., paragraph 2.

## Chapter V

ANALYSIS OF THE POLICY MAKING IN EDUCATION: THE  
MODEL OF FORMAL ORGANISATION AND THE IDENTIFICATION  
OF GREEK ORGANISATIONS RELEVANT TO TEACHER EDUCATION.

In discussing the specific issues of pre-primary and primary teacher education in Greece in Chapter IV it became clear that the new developments started by the 1982 Law proposals became the focus of educational debates before and after the reform. The predominant questions in these debates were the essential issues of "who" controls and "who ought to" control teacher education.

The concept of control is a major issue because it raises questions of on the one side, to what extent the various groups with an interest in education participate in the process of decision-making and on the other side, to what degree these groups have the power to judge, to make or execute relevant decisions.

Within the Greek context among the various groups who have an interest in education in general there are five groups which seems to have a particular interest in teacher education. These are the State, the political parties, universities, teachers' union and students.

Our aim is to describe accurately their patterns of influence and control in teacher education policy process and to examine the role they played in the various stages of that process. Such an attempt will be completed if it will start with the polarity of centralised versus decentralised control which although inadequate, "provides a first starting point for the analysis" (1).

### 5.1 Types of Administration: Centralisation- Decentralisation and Organisation

At the present time, broadly speaking, there are two controversial movements: on the one hand an apparent movement in a number of states to gain greater central control in the name of equality and on the other hand a rather more diverse justified movement or demand for local participation and control in education in both industrialised and non-industrialised countries.

Any assessment of these pressures and demands leads to the comparative framework of administrative types: centralisation and decentralisation, as classified by Isaak Kandel in 1933.

Description of a centralised system draws attention to the following:

- (1) Resources distributed equitably through national central control.
- (2) Reforms implemented more thoroughly.
- (3) Innovation is rare.
- (4 ) Little participation of groups included in the sense that consumers like parents, pupils, teachers, local community, etc. have relatively little participation in the system.

In reference to a decentralised system:

- (1) Unequal distributed resources.
- (2) Innovations more frequent but less widely implemented.
- (3) High degree of participation.

Actually the identification of the above descriptive structure is rather different in practice.

Usually centralisation means control of education at

national level while decentralisation at national-regional-local and institutional level (Organisation for Economic, Cooperation and Development, 1973).

At National level, decisions on educational policy are formulated by the National Ministry of Education, which exists in any country and people participate through their electives in National Parliament.

At Regional level there is a quite considerable variety of cases while some countries may not have it at all. In federal systems it is clear, as in the U.S.A. where regional level is the State. State Parliaments again are the representative bodies.

At local level, representative local bodies have a high degree of autonomous control. The "ideal" team of local bodies in a community are identified(2),

"to an Athenian conception of participatory democracy, or a romanticised version of a pre-industrial village with overlapping networks of kinship, work, leisure and friendship and its essentially person-to-person relationships".

At Institutional level (i.e. schools) the governmental body represents the interests of all people involved in the institution.

Areas in which power can be contested by different authorities are the provision of education, the structure and organisation of schools, the content of the curriculum and teaching methods, examination and certification procedures, teacher training, appointment and conditions of service (3).

In Greece, which has a highly centralised system with a high degree of national control in each of these areas, teacher education has moved to some extent to a greater autonomy and flexibility in terms of preparation content curricula practice

and certification procedures while maintaining national control over admission, appointment and conditions of service. This movement of decentralisation of educational control has been started by the introduction of pre-primary and primary teacher education in the University Pedagogical Departments.

We believe that such development emerged from some loss of faith in the value and validity of the State's monopoly of educational decision-making in Teacher Training Colleges and from some kind of willingness to change the distribution of educational power - a process which is termed by McLean (4) "decentralisation in a broad sense".

However, it seems that this kind of willingness of the Greek State was motivated by political rationales in the sense that the demands by teachers for university control over the content - by the meaning of scientific preparation - was so great that it was less threatening to central power to respond than to resist them.

Finally, the brief presentation of centralisation-decentralisation matter could be completed by the typology, proposed by I. Cramer and Browne (5), consisting of the four types of organisation and the educational control. These are,

- (i) Decentralised system of organisation with strong local educational control, studied in countries like U.S.A., Canada, Japan and Switzerland.
- (ii) Decentralised system of organisation with national control of policy, studied in countries like U.S.S.R. and East Germany.
- (iii) Decentralised system of organisation with divided control between national government and local authorities, studied in countries like England and Wales.



- (iv) Centralised system of organisation with centralised national control studied in France.

Greece is an illustration of the latest category with local self-government relatively unimportant and largely dependent on the national authority. The latest law on general education (Law 1566/85) permits little participation in control and administration of schools, but it does not affect decisions on educational policy and practices. The issue of teacher education before the reform had been under complete national control in order to serve a national purpose.

As teacher preparation has moved in to the area of university autonomy, after the reform, its control has been divided into the State and University agencies.

But what were the forces which led to these shifts in control patterns and their relationships with the other educational groups which were involved in the decision-making process? Any attempt to investigate these issues further leads to the analysis of the policy-making process in the perspective of the politics of education from organisation theory.

Holmes (6), advocates that in any analysis of the politics of education it is necessary to draw four distinctions:

- (1) Which educational issue is under discussion?
- (2) Which of the three policy processes (formulation, adoption and implementation) is under specific consideration?
- (3) Which groups within formal organisation and outside them negotiate on the selected issue and in each of the processes?
- (4) Is the issue debated among social consensus groups, producers and resource providers or producers only?

This general framework will be applied to analyse decision making and taking procedures in the following discussion.

The distinction between centralisation-decentralisation, as has been stated at the beginning, does not provide a thorough analytical tool for such study. There is a need for a different perspective which will help the identification and location of the participants involved in the politics of teacher education. In this sense we will attempt to investigate the issue from the perspective of the organisation theory.

## 5.2 The Model of Formal Organisation

At the heart of the debates which have taken place before and after the reform of teacher education proposed by the 1982 Law, there are some important characteristics.

First of all, before the reform, teachers' desire for professional preparation, had been put into the political system as demanded mainly by three representative organised groups: Teachers' Union, students and political parties.

In order to satisfy their demand each one of these acted as pressure groups, directly or indirectly, and used different channels of influence, depending on the degree of their legal authority.

Obviously the other two major groups involved, the State and Universities, through the political system retained their authority to resist in the formulation and adoption of teachers' original demand and to propose alternative policies.

After the reform, due to the changes in the political system and in the structure and functioning of Universities implied by the 1982 Law, the functional authority and the relationships in terms of powers between these groups seems to have changed.

The questions which arise are:

- What was before and what is for the time being the functional authority which determines the interaction of these groups?
- Depending on the degree of this authority how can these groups influence the policy making process?
- Who belongs to these groups? What is his occupational status and the responsibilities in the reform change of teacher education?
- And finally, how could the conflict between the members of the university which provoked discussion after the reform be analysed?

The investigation of all these questions draws attention to the use of the basic concepts of the theory of organisation.

For analytical purposes Talcott Parsons' concept of formal organisation provides a useful starting point.

Justification for the choice derives from the view that its model of Formal Organisation provides a specified pattern of organisation, which permits an analysis of,

- (a) functional authority of interaction between potential participants;
- (b) distinction between personnel in formal organisations, people working through organised groups and individuals who speak only for themselves (7);
- (c) conflict either within an organisation or between members in different formal organisations and members of organised interest groups or lobbies.

### 5.2.1 Basic Assumptions of Talcott Parsons' Analysis of Formal Organisation

The study of organisation in the sense that it is part of the general study of social structure has been important in the identification of various social groups or individuals with specialised functions and relatively pure-type "occupational" roles, in the sense that there is a relatively high degree of demarcation between private affairs and occupational status and responsibilities. The essential part of such organisation lies in the notion that,

"organisations are relatively small compared to communities or whole societies... their boundaries are clear, as most have criteria that define membership. Their purposes or goals are also explicit, which is not the case for families, communities and societies" (8).

Talcott Parsons' model of formal organisation grew out of his concept of organisation as a "broad type of collectivity" (9) in the sense that "A collectivity is a concrete system of interacting human individuals, or persons in roles" (10). The latter are defined as "the complexes of organised participants of individuals or categories of individuals in the functioning of collectivities" (11). Such approach to the analysis of organisations is characterised by three principles:

- (i) it is located within the rank of other subsystems of the larger social system with particular function.
- (ii) it is organised for the attainment of a specific type of goal which is defined "as the relation between a system (in this case a social system) and the relevant parts of the external situation in which it acts or operates" (12).
- (iii) The attainment of that goal is defined by the external situations in which the organisation functions and the

other relations between the subsystem of the society.

Within the above framework of principles,

"An organisation is a system which, as the attainment of its goal, 'produces' an identifiable something which can be utilised in some way by another system; that is, the output of the organisation is, for some other system, an input" (13).

Thus, while for the government agency in Greece the Law 1982 was the output, for the university, as an educational organisation, it was an input in the sense that it provided new structure of the organisation and introduced the new University Pedagogical departments which produce new knowledge and kinds of training on the part of the students who are subject to its influence.

The structure of an organisation may be described and analysed from two points of view. As Parsons himself suggests,

"The first is the 'cultural-institutional' point of view which uses the values of the system and their institutionalisation in different functional contexts as its point of departure; the second is the 'group' or 'role' point of view which takes sub-organisations and the roles of individuals participating in the functioning of the organisation as its points of departure" (14).

Analysis through the institutional structure of an organisation should include:

- (i) the value system which defines its goals and legitimises the functional context of goal-attainment itself;
- (ii) the adaptive mechanisms through which resources are made available;
- (iii) the operative code concerned with the mechanisms of the direct process of goal implementation and
- (iv) the mechanisms of integration.

Furthermore analysis of the structure of an organisation through the "group" or "role" point of view involves its constituent personnel and their roles in its functioning and includes:

- (i) the view of organisation in the sense of a kind of "management" or "administration".
- (ii) There is a top group of people who are responsible for the organisation's affairs usually formulated "as policy formation" or "decision-making".
- (iii) Under the control of the above group there are various operative groups who perform "staff" functions.

Parsons' analysis pays primary attention to the first type of analysis in order to analyse the main components of the structure of an organisation.

Using the value pattern as the main point of reference with the notion that "imply basic acceptance of the more generalised values of the superordinate system" (15) and "on the requisite level of generality, the most essential feature of the value system of an organisation is the evaluative legitimised of its place or 'role' in the superordinate system" (16) he defines the basic orientation of the organisation to the direction of its actual operation and consequently guides the activities of individual participants.

The other three aspects of the adaptive mechanisms, mechanisms of operative goal-attainment and mechanisms of integration are regulated by subvalues governing these three aspects of organisational functioning.

Finally the use of institutional patterns helps to link the structure of the organisation with the whole structure of the society.

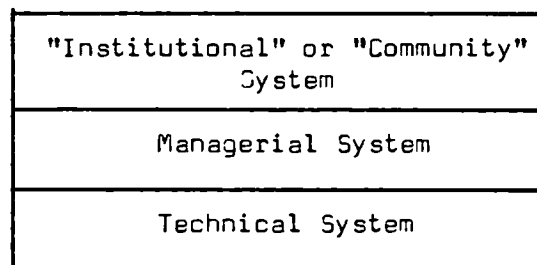
The above primary assumptions of the formal analysis could be applied in various types of organisation within Parsons' conceptual approach.

In fact one important source of ideas in the background of his analysis is the work of Max Weber upon the bureaucratic organisation who proposed four factors as the basis characteristics (17) "specialisation, a hierarchy of authority, a system of rules, and impersonality". In an effort to codify the knowledge of organisation more systematically and to link it with knowledge of other subsystems and of the social environment within which formal organisation must operate, Parsons provided the following model of formal organisation.

#### 5.2.2 Parsons' Model of Formal Organisation

In the centre of the Parsonian model three levels constitute the hierarchical structure of a formal organisation (Figure V).

Figure V



The distinction between technical, managerial and institutional level of formal organisation was designed to discriminate between the various levels of differentiation between subsystems which exist in a complex society.

The level at which each suborganisation operates has a special function entirely independent of the functional content of the organisation at any level.

### 5.2.3 Vertical Relationships Between the Three Levels of the Organisation

The relative independence of the three-stage hierarchy constitutes the main Parsons' objective to the continuous line-authority of formal organisation. He claims that the qualitatively different functions of each level creates qualitative breaks in the line authority of bureaucracies. There are two such breaks whose nature confirms the existence of a two-way interchange of inputs and outputs.

The contribution of each side is qualitatively different because,

"Either side is in a position, by withholding its important contributions, to interfere seriously with the functioning of the other and of the larger organisation. Hence the institutionalisation of these relations must typically take a form where the relative independence of each is protected. Since, however, there is an actual hierarchy, since in some sense the 'higher' authority must be able to have some kind of 'last word' the problem of protection focuses on the status of the lower-order element" (18).

Thus, in the State organisation in Greece, teachers are the technical experts at the professional level and must participate, through their representatives, in the technically crucial decisions and to share responsibility for the consequences. In this sense the teacher as an expert belongs to the group of specialists in education matters sharing a type of competence which cuts across the structure of technical and managerial organisation.

This concept of participation and responsibility however are among the main criteria of teaching as a profession. Within the Greek context this applies only at the point of articulation between the technical and managerial organisation, because the elected leaders of pre-primary and primary school teachers par-



ticipate in the National Council of Education which constitutes the managerial personnel in the State's organisation and make proposals relevant to education to the government.

Parsons argues that at the point of articulation between the managerial and institutional level the nature of qualitative break is different, because it could be either the case where the "top man" is responsible "on his own" and everybody else is under his orders or the case where the nominal head of the unit is a political superior and the managerial system is incorporated in a "political" structure.

The latter applies in Greece, where members of the Government and the Parliament consist of Institutional level personnel and thus at this point teachers can only indirectly share responsibility in the decision-making process.

#### 5.2.4 Lateral Relationships Between the Three Levels of the Organisation

Lateral relationships between each of the three systems and the society assume a kind of "technical" process which must be carried out in relation to social-economic-political environment or to some materials (physical object or class of them, state of social objects, i.e. of persons or collectivities and cultural object).

At the technical level, the case of physical object involves usually the process of modern technology, within a complex organised cooperation, in order to carry out the process of production.

The case of human individuals or collectivities involves the fulfilment of some obligations laid down the decision of a "legitimate" authority. Pre-requisites for the latter case is

a prior relation between the social object and the recipient of beneficiary of the service.

Membership in the technical level which provides this service is an important aspect. Generally speaking, this issue is expected to be taken into account for the first two levels and Weber claims that "Candidates are selected on the basis of technical qualifications" (19).

In education, the prior relation between the teaching process and the recipient of the teaching service is a kind of agreement in terms of which pupils go to school.

The school class is a social system which requires a degree of integration between teacher and pupils. It establishes a long-continuing and close relationship with the pupils and requires their cooperation in the teaching service, otherwise the result will not be possible at all.

At the managerial level of organisation the lateral relationship with the external situation firstly facilitates the process of technological production and secondly treats problems of equilibrium in its sub-organisations.

The problems of equilibrium usually are concentrated in the balance between the flow in marketing produce and the output of purchasing power which is an essential part of the functional contribution of the firm.

While at the technical level, the output of products is its main responsibility, at the managerial level it is primarily the output of purchasing power.

In the educational field the technical output is a possible change in the knowledge, character and particular skills of individual pupils. The managerial output are decisions relevant to the adaptation of the technical education processes

to the conditions of the community which are motivated partly by ideas and plans of the school authorities and partly by some sorts of "demands" in the community, particularly from families and interest groups oriented to educational goals. At the same time the community's support for education, as a function consists of the "input" at the managerial level.

The procurement of personnel in the Parsonian model is a fundamental aspect, because in a modern society the majority of its functions are performed in occupational roles by people who have neither ascriptive nor associational connection with the organisation but are employed through informal or formal employment contracts. This aspect is particularly important at the managerial level which is the mediator between the relations of formal organisation and the external social situation.

At the Institutional level the lateral relations depend on the concept of function in the other levels within the system of society.

The institutional outputs or products are to be found in its function to contribute to the generalised capacity of the society to perform this category of function.

In educational organisation the teacher's function is to educate in the technical sense while the administrator's function is to organise the educational process within the community thus contributing to the level of performance-capacity in the community. In so doing the primary function of the institutional organisation is to contribute to the "integration" of the higher order systems within the functional framework of the managerial level.

The role of the Institutional level is to mediate bet-

ween the claims of this function upon legitimation and community resources and the requirements of effective performance of the function on the managerial and technical levels.

In summary, the whole analysis at the technical, managerial and institutional organisation reveals connections and interchanges "upwards" and "downwards".

The focus of Parsons' model of formal organisation in the three-stage hierarchy, his emphasis on their independent functional type and the possible different types of articulation, gives a sophisticated understanding about the range of structural variation and the analysis of the dynamic processes which take place within organisation. Within organisation the concept of membership at the three levels remains important.

Parsons assumes that,

"In organisational terms this problem focuses on the school board; in the case of the university, the trustees. In this context it is essential that the membership of such bodies.... to constitute such boards principally of 'professionals' would be to make the profession to judge in its own case, a privilege which a pluralistic society obviously cannot grant as a general rule" (20).

When the concept of the system remains dominant within the theory of organisation, the issue of membership has the sense,

"actors who are members of any particular system are themselves likely to be members of other systems and there will be interdependence between their behaviour in all systems" (21)

The various types of organisation are classified, in general, in terms of their products. Thus we have three main types (22),

(i) Political formal organisation produce

(a) legislation - decrees - memoranda - judicial decisions;

- (b) Institutions for the policies achievement.
- (ii) Economic formal organisations produce goods and services.
- (iii) Professional formal organisations in which products could not be easily defined.

However, in each type members of the "public" should be recognised if it is to understand who public interest staff in the formal organisation are representing.

The Greek educationally relevant organisations which have been identified at the beginning of the chapter, belong to the political formal organisations. The type of personnel in each one is analysed in the latter part of the present discussion.

### 5.3 A Further Elaboration of Formal Organisation in Comparative Studies

In comparative analysis the effort to reveal the functioning overlaps between members of the technical, managerial and public interest groups, lead B. Holmes to assume that,

"there are in most countries formal organisations at the national level (usually called the Ministry of Education) at the provincial or regional level, and/or at the local levels" (23) (figure VI)

Figure VI

<u>NATIONAL</u>	<u>REGIONAL</u>	<u>LOCAL</u>
Public Interest	Public Interest	Public Interest
Managerial	Managerial	Managerial
Technical	Technical	Technical

Despite the different functions of each personnel within these organisations, there is always some type of close relationship. Generally speaking, it is assumed that there is interaction within organisations directed downwards and upwards between organisations between the three levels and organisations and other sub-systems between any of the organisation (24).

There are some principles underlying the above relationships,

- (a) Inter-organisation relationships may be regulated by legislation or by reference to the power structure and the mechanisms of its operation.
- (b) The power structure of any group should be studied,
  - (i) in terms of the norms associated with the fulfilment of the role accorded to the personnel by customs, traditions and the sense of social responsibility shared by members of each group.
  - (ii) in terms of the professional codes of ethics, shared by the lower groups and finally,
  - (iii) in terms of the possession of esoteric knowledge.

Members of a profession according to the goals to which they subscribe, the power structure they maintain and their relations with the "public" could be studied as a formal organisation model. Despite the criticisms of this use, Holmes (26) maintains that the value of the model lies in its usefulness when a profession is studied in terms of its power, status and remuneration. Its "primary" orientation is the attainment of the public service members perform, which is equal with the services and goods provided by an economic organisation. In the public interest group members of the profession are protected by their professional code of ethics.

#### 5.4 Application of a Formal Organisation Model in the Problem Approach

Holmes maintains that Parsons' model could be useful at any stage of the problem approach. In the light of this view its value has two dimensions: first as a model which provides a classification and second as a research model in comparative analysis.

##### A. The Value of a Formal Organisation Model as a Classification Scheme

- (i) In education, units such as: universities, colleges, individual schools, levels of schooling, community, society, state, could be analysed by regarding them as patterns of interacting formal organisations.
- (ii) It provides a general classificatory basis for the major popular societal classifications. Despite these concepts like "modern", "industrial", "democratic", are inappropriate, because they restrict comparison within a group or between groups.
- (iii) It facilitates the analysis of political processes in the units like "nation-state", "society", "community", or "educational" institutions.

In our study it will help to analyse the units of state, political parties, teachers' union, universities and students by considering them as patterns of interacting formal organisations.

B. Its Application in the "Problem Approach" draws attention to teaching and research in studying problem analysis, policy formulation, contextual features, deduces outcomes and choice of policies.

It is possible for the model to be placed in the general taxonomy based on critical dualism. Normative statements and

institutions could be classified as related to educational, political, religious, and economic aspects of the society, whose members are pressure groups. In our study the use of a formal organisation model in the analysis of the units of the State, political parties, universities, teacher union and students' organisations in conjunction with the processes of the policy formulation, adoption and implementation will help to analyse the interaction within and between formal organisations and outside groups.

An important characteristic of this model is that it covers only the interaction of formal groups engaged in the policy discussion.

Thus in order to identify the individual participants involved in the debates during the implementation of the reform, Paul Peterson's introduction of arenas of political debate could be useful analytical tools.

#### 5.5 Formal Organisation and Arenas of Political Debate

At the heart of P. Peterson's political analysis three kinds of distinctions should be taken in to account, if the mechanics of change is to be interpreted in party politics.

The first distinction is between supporters of party politics and the definition which accepts that all the actions related to the three major policy processes should be regarded as part of a political system (27).

The second distinction is between the political role of producer and consumer groups in education.

Debates within producer groups are likely to turn on

- (a) specific academic policies (internal) or
- (b) conditions of service (external).



In the Greek context producer groups in the university organisation are **consistently** the teaching staff while consumer groups are the students -future **pre-primary** and primary school teachers who use the goods and services provided.

Within the conceptual framework of a formal organisation the debates about the character of the content of teachers' preparation programmes were on specific academic policies (internal) between the producer groups of the university teaching personnel. Furthermore, Peterson argued that debates between producers-consumer groups are usually of middle range generality and involve the technical level personnel and an organised "consumer" interest. Thus, in Greece, the debates between the teaching personnel - which belong to the technical level of the university organisation - and the students - through their elected representatives - are usually about textbooks, examinations, etc.

The third distinction suggested by Peterson is that of educational bureaucracy and it is referring to the various types of arenas of political activity.

According to this there are three political arenas of debates:

- (a) In Particularistic politics the arena embraces producer groups who have an influence on policy and are in conflict with the authorities who provide financial resources.
- (b) In Pluralistic politics the arena of political debate is between producer groups each one representing a different interest in policy. For a variety of reasons, the role of political parties is "peripheral" in pluralistic politics, thus avoiding conflict with producer group organisations.
- (c) In Status Group politics the arena involves discussions

by the representatives of social consensus groups on educational issues. It is a debate between producer and consumer groups, broadly based on the general principles of race, religion, social class and political interests (28).

Political party politics has an important role to play and producer groups consequently attempt to influence policy through a number of arrangements. In Greece, with reference to teacher education policy change, we can distinguish all these arenas of political activity.

It can be suggested that at the beginning the debates have started in the arena of particularistic politics between teachers and the Government about the professional, social and economic status of pre-primary and primary school teachers.

Eventually the arena of debates has been shifted in status group politics because teachers' demand started to be represented by political parties and acquired political interest.

By the reform proposals introduced with the 1982 Law the arena of debate has been confined in pluralistic politics between the members of the University teaching personnel who have somehow different interests in the new policy. Thus professional educationists seem to disagree with the professors of academic subjects over the nature of preparation programmes of teacher education in universities.

From all these it is very clear that the issue of teacher education has been thrown from one into another arena of debate thus contributing to the identification of problems.

## 5.6 Processes of Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation

Generally speaking, in response to any problems either clearly identified or vaguely perceived alternative policies are proposed.

Policy formulation, adoption and implementation usually involves political processes which may be named "planning". If we accept the view that planning in education is "the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future" (29), then we can,

"assume that piece-meal social engineering or planning in future-directed, includes all three policy processes - formulation, adoption and implementation - and involves explanation, prediction and testing" (30).

In policy formulation, the normative elements are statements of "what ought to be the case" in relation either to the well-being of individuals or of the whole society. Such statements represented as goals, aims or objectives and could be converted easily in to policy elements.

In terms of political processes, normative elements influence heavily the process of alternative policies preparation.

The institutional aspects of policy formulation define what arrangements should be designed for the achievement of the stated aims and objectives, making distinction between individual action and institutional behaviour. In practice policy formulation is a complicated process, because the views of various people and groups should be taken in to account. These views correspond to "consumer" demands which operate through the lateral relationships that exist in any society. However, neither type of demand could be easily identified,

thus a variety of agencies have been established to facilitate the process of policy formulation.

Usually members of the public interest formulate policy, managerial staff adopt and technician personnel implement it. The power of the "consumers", who represent the wider public, to participate in the three stage policy process varies from issue to issue and between types of formal organisation.

In political formal organisation, the public interest group, are representatives of the electorate, frequently elected.

Interaction between members of the public interest group and the personnel of the "lower" levels involves negotiations in terms of political processes based on a formal or informal basis.

At national level, the "consumers" demand operates rather indirectly in policy process in comparison with the local level, where they can influence the process as members of local political parties.

Political parties, parent organisations, trade unions, industrialists and members of commerce should ideally, but not necessarily be consulted in educational debates.

These debates are taking place in the arena of status group politics, although the arenas of particularistic and pluralistic politics are not excluded, depending on the issue under consideration and the national, regional or local context in which they are operating.

In the issue of teacher education a number of participants started to take a more active role in the formulation of teacher-training policy. Most of the debates are taking

place in pluralistic arenas, between members of the educational establishments who have a major say in teachers' content preparation and curriculum practices.

Conflicts arise mainly from the disagreement between professors of education who regard essential knowledge for the child, the knowledge of the society where the child is going to enter and professors of other subjects who claim that the essential knowledge is that of subject-matter and the method through which it is to be taught.

The controversy between professors of education, professors of academic disciplines and teachers' union in Greece applies to the above issue.

Policy adoption includes, "processes on the basis of which 'plans' are accepted and rejected" (31). They depend mainly either on a normative or ideological commitment or on some kind of testing. Depending on the aspect of education, in terms of policy adoption, conflicts reveal different approaches as alternative policy solutions to the problems.

Generally speaking, in debates between political parties or members of the academic community, it is possible to identify two kinds of approaches:

- (i) The conservative approach to policy solution, where people argue that the changes which create problems should be reversed and,
- (ii) The radical approach to policy solution which accepts the change and brings that aspect of education or society which lies behind the change in to line with the new policy.

In policy implementation, account has to be taken of

the conservative mental state, which most sociologists claim continues to inform the behaviour of participants.

In respect to the introduction of University Pedagogical Departments in Greece, some members of the teaching personnel possess a mental state which makes it difficult for them to accept the implications of the radical policy solution.

In comparative studies, adoption of a particular alternative policy presupposes to take in to account the consequences, as far as it is possible, of accepting conservative or radical policy in the light of specific circumstances. Thus in fact, the question of adoption is deciding between alternatives in the light of,

- (i) ideology which informs peoples' decision or
- (ii) on the basis of the commitment to a certain set of ideals and to a certain innate or inbuilt or traditional mental state or
- (iii) of working out the possible consequences of adopting either conservative or radical policy in the light of comparative evidence.

The latter technique may be used in conjunction with the "problem" and "hypo-thetico deductive" approaches, thus considering possible way of deciding between alternative policies by rejecting the less viable ones (32).

The political context of the country has important consequences for the extent to which the policy can be implemented. In Greece in particular, it has been suggested in the beginning of the present study that it is the decisive factor in the investigation issue of teacher education reform.

Successful implementation requires specific skills to

anticipate not only the individuals who resist the policy but also to identify the group or individuals who will go along with it. Lack of implementation could be attributed to some extent, mainly on,

- (i) the power of opposition groups to resist the policy,
- (ii) unwillingness of authorities to use the available mechanisms of persuasion,
- (iii) inadequate resources, both material and
- (iv) the time lag between policy formulation and implementation.

Finally from the above we can suggest that the three processes of policy formulation, adoption and implementation are indispensable parts of the politics of education.

But before the study pays attention to these processes, first of all the participants must be identified and presented in the light of organisation theory structure.

## 5.7 Identification of Greek Educationally Relevant Organisations

### 5.7.1 The State

Typically in centralised systems of education, as is the case of Greece, participation of states in the provision of education is an indispensable feature of national control.

The Greek Constitution of 1975 specifies the primacy of interest in the attainment of the State's goal related to education,

"Education shall constitute a fundamental objective of the State and shall aim at the moral, intellectual, professional and physical instruction of the Greeks, the development of national and religious consciousness and the formation of free and responsible citizens" (33).

and,

"University level education shall be provided exclusively by institutions which are bodies corporate of public law and fully self-governed. The said institutions shall be under the supervision of the state and shall be entitled to financial support therefrom" (34).

The State organisation is governed by the values of "popular sovereignty" (35), the maximisation of overall development of individuals within the ideological principles of Christianity and citizenship, freedom and responsibility.

Within the concept of hierarchical structure of a formal organisation, the "public interest" level is composed of members of the Government and the Parliament.

"The legislative power shall be exercised by Parliament and the President of the Republic" (36).

"The executive power shall be exercised by the President of the Republic and the Government."

Typically, a member of the government is appointed as Minister of Education who is not always a Member of the Cabinet since, "the Law shall determine matters referring to the composition and function of the Cabinet" (37).

Generally speaking, however, he is a member of the elected government who exercises the duties relevant to educational policy. In so doing, he is a representative of the national political party with the majority in the parliament. The prestige of the Greek Minister of Education is among the senior cabinet positions thus determining his ability to press for more finance for education and to adopt important reforms.

Finally, from the administrative point of view, he is the highest officer who operates directly to the national electorate through national assemblies.



At the public interest level educational policy formulation and debates on finance and general education are expected to occur.

Usually educational discussions are channelled through national political parties. Certainly, the adoption of educational legislation depends on the party's power to push legislation through its parliamentary strength. At the managerial level, there is a wide range of administrative personnel, bureaucrats, professionals, experts in educational issues, etc. The most important for education, is the National Council of Education, whose general purpose is to make proposals to the government on issues of the educational policy in all stages on,

- (1) the general lines on which the educational policy is based;
- (2) the adjustment of content of education in accordance with the social and economic development of the country;
- (3) the structure of education;
- (4) the application of educational orientation;
- (5) continuing education and popular education;
- (6) the development of pre-school and special education;
- (7) administration and supervision of regional educational councils;
- (8) advice to the Minister on those matters he considers necessary.

Members of this Council, which is presided over by the Ministry of Education, are representatives of the Ministries of Coordination and Economics, Culture, Health and Social Services, Employment, Industry, Young Generation and Sports, representa-

tives of municipal and local authorities, the church, of professional and social organisations, of production groups, primary and secondary school teachers, students union, of higher and highest educational institutions and parents.

At the regional level, the Nomarchiaki kai Eparcheaki epitropi pedeias - Regional Council of Education is associated directly with the managerial group of the national organisation and it is responsible for financial and material equipment of the regional public schools. Moreover their proposals to the National Council of Education are related with general educational issues and content (38).

The function, organisation and responsibilities of each member in these regional councils of education is defined by the Ministry of Education.

At the local level, the Dimotiki epitropi pedeias - Local Council of Education - affiliated directly with the Regional Council of Education, is responsible for making proposals on the organisation of public pre-primary, primary and secondary schools, of their finance, buildings, and on the role of school councils.

Members are the President of the Local Authority and representatives of Parents' Association, one Headmaster, four primary school teachers and one secondary teacher from selected schools, representatives from the community. Again their functions and responsibilities are under the State supervision.

At the Institutional level, it is the School Council which operates in each school and is composed of the Union of the Teaching Personnel, the Council of Parents' Association and representatives from local authority and its major res-

possibility is the successful running of the school within the community (39).

Moreover, at this level operates the School Committee, which is responsible for financial management of the school. Teachers represent the technical group of the state organisation. Their representatives are involved in educational policy-making at the managerial level at national, regional and local level but not at the Public Interest level. Obviously the extent to which teachers are able to participate in the formulation of policy is strictly limited. The wider public teachers are expected to serve is pupils and parents.

Strictly speaking their involvement in school function is limited.

Furthermore, there is a great number of individuals or organised groups which have an interest in educational issues and could be classified within the wider public.

#### 5.7.2 Political Parties

The term "political party" is used to describe political organisations which seem to perform certain common functions in all systems - as for example, political recruitment and the communication of consumers' demands to political decision makers (40). Besides, parties are related to particular levels of modernisation, in terms of social and economic differentiation. The identification of a "modern" political organisation focuses on three criteria,

- (a) the continuity and permanence of an organisation,
- (b) its relationship to the mass electorate and
- (c) the aims of its leadership (specifically, whether or not leaders seek decision making positions within

the system)(41).

In this context, the Greek political organisations could not be regarded either as modern or nonmodern, since some political parties at the parliamentary level have some traditional components and others some modern.

The formal organisation of contemporary Greek parties of the traditional type have been influenced by the effectiveness of the Socialist Party, in terms of organisation and structure and in this sense "the Socialist Party (PASOK) contributed decisively in some modernisation of the Greek political system"(42).

In addition, their institutional recognition in the Constitution of 1975 - for the first time in history - influenced positively their functions and further development.

Indeed, the Greek Constitution states, (43)

"Greek citizens who are eligible to vote can freely establish and participate in political parties, the organisation and activities whereof must serve the free functioning of the democratic political system. Citizens who have not yet acquired the right to vote can participate in the youth organisations of political parties."

Within the significant Greek political parties, New Democracy, and Panhellenic Socialist Movement, are based on the "personal and fragile component made up by the demagogic qualities of the particular leader" while the Communist parties are based on collective participation.

The organisational chart of these political groupings are analysed as follows:

Nea Demokratia - N.D. - (New Democracy) was established on 4th October 1974 by Constantine Karamanlis. In fact, the party represents the continuity of the old right wing organisation of Ethniki Rizospastiki Enosis - E.R.E. (National

Radical Union). Its value system is based mainly on political rather than ideological concerns and derives from a number of statements (44) like,

"New Democracy is the political party that identifies the Nation with the People - the Native country with its Men - the State with its Citizens - the National Independence with the Popular Sovereignty - the Progress with the Common Good - the Political freedom with the Legal order and Social Justice. "

A closely related statement with its ideological concern is that,

"New Democracy is the system through which the few and the well known give guidance, represent instead of rule, and in final terms serve - the majority and the unknown" (45).

In socio-economic terms, the view represents the Platonic-Aristotelian traditions in which innate inequalities justified a society based on privileges accorded on the criteria of wealth, birth and outstanding ability. In the educational sphere implies the notion of stability through the standards of academic learning and to extend the view it seems ideologically the most important source for the perpetuation of the dual model of teacher education since the right wing party secured always power bases in educational decision making processes.

According to the party's constitution its organisation is differentiated between central and peripheral level (46), but in fact it is not claimed that it belongs to a modern political organisation in the sense we suggested at the beginning because of the lack of such organisation and the indisputable source of leaders' power in decision making processes.

The social composition of its consumers is usually made up by wealthy men founded in the commercial elite or churchmen or in some traditional elitist occupations such as doctors, lawyers, etc. and all those who hold the traditional

conservative view of the Greek society through the perpetuation of the classical ideas and the principles of the Hellenic-Christian civilisation.

Since the beginning of the eighties, the first major party is the Panellenio Socialistiko Kinima - P.A.S.O.K - (Panhellenic Socialist Movement) which came to life on 3rd September 1974 by Andreas Papandreu,

"The most prominent political change PASOK brought... in Greek politics was the radical re-articulation of the post-war ruling class (47)... the traditional political elite lost the exclusive control of the means of sovereignty and they were bound to share these with new politicians who not only penetrated in to the centres of power but changed from the foundations the nature of political organisation and the style of political speech." (48)

Its value system ideologically is based on four basic principles: National Independence, Popular Sovereignty, Freedom, Democratic Process (49). Moreover "PASOK's struggle" for a socialist and democratic Greece rests on the principle that "national independence constitutes assumption for the real popular sovereignty that popular sovereignty constitutes assumptions for real social freedom, that social freedom constitutes assumptions for real political democracy" (50).

PASOK's socialism is peculiar because it corresponds to the Greek context. In fact, such a model of socialism which is based on Marxism thought and rejects Leninism has never been applied (51). It gives the impression that similarities with Yugoslavia and somewhere with Algeria, Libya and Syria, together with the characteristic seal of its leader, as usually happens in the political parties of the above countries (52).

In educational terms, however, it means the "change in the values of the content and the direction of education and

studies" (53). Indeed, this principle has been in practice in all stages of the educational systems and the radical change in teacher education serves the first step for "unification of the two large educational groups" of the country (54).

The basic unit of its organisation is the "local" organisation which should "represent the social classes of the community that are expressed in political terms through the PASOK" (55). At the same level, parallel with the above there is also another organisation "the branch" of the political party which is composed by various occupational organisations . At the regional level, it is the "Regional Assembly" which communicates with the "central organ" of the national level through the Peripheral Committees.

At the national level the central organ of the party are the Congress, the Leader - the President - the Central Committee and the Executive Office.

The social composition of its personnel at the local level belongs to various occupational groups but at the regional and central level belongs to the engineers, teachers of secondary level of education and mainly to officials and employees (56).

The Communist Political Party in Greece is represented by two participants:

- (i) The Kommunistiko Komma Helladas - K.K.E. (Communist Party of Greece) which was established in 1918 and is closely related with the Soviet Communist Party.
- (ii) The Kommunistiko Komma Helladas esoteri kou - KKE es: (Communist Party of Greece - Internal) which was

established in 1968 and is composed of the left wing followers who used to live in the country after the civil war of the second post- world war period. The party is rather oriented to Western Europe.

Both parties have the same organisational principles of "democratic centralisation". Their constitutions anticipate five organisational levels:

- (1) the political organisations of the bases;
- (2) the achidiki organisation;
- (3) the Nomarchiaki Organisation;
- (4) the Local Organisation and
- (5) the highest organs of the party (57).

In fact, both parties became legal after the fall of the dictatorship and have developed particular activities at the level of organisational basis, inside the factories and other places of work, where other political parties are non-existent (PASOK is a small exception).

Although their value system is based on the same ideological principles there is a difference in the social composition of their members because while the Internal Communist Party of Greece tends to be the "Communist Party of Intellectuals and in general of educated people" the second one tends to remain "the real party of the working class" (58).

Thus the first seem to employ the best personnel while the second one employs the wide mass of the people, has better finances and is more productive as a political mechanism.

With reference to the educational issues and in particular that of teacher education we have mentioned elsewhere that it was the first political party in the Greek educational history that proposed a real professional preparation for all



teachers in the University level Institutions since the post-war period.

In comparison with the other political parties, the communists have traditionally experience in function and organisation as well as professional personnel for more than sixty years and form the best organisational political model in the Greek context while the others form "loose electoral mechanisms" (59).

Remembering the articulation of the organisational system, it is characteristic that inside each political party there are vertical one-way relationships from the top to the lower personnel. Whatever the reasons, the lower personnel at the managerial and institutional level communicate with the wide public and its clientele only through the lateral relations.

But this kind of relationship reveals very clearly the role of the political organisations in the Greek political context and the society in general. The public demand could not reach directly - through the organisational levels - to the top, which is the Parliament, the Ministries, the political and economic centres.

We may generalise, that the two-way interchange of inputs and outputs - whatever the "contribution" from each side - is absent. Hence the institutionalisation of these relationships have typically a form where the dependence of each level rests entirely on the "higher" authority. The leader - who has the "last word".

This leads to another crucial point,

"The political parties as electoral mechanisms, as ways to reserve the leader and as a process of service a particular clientele constitute factors of popular sovereignty weakness and permanent reproducers of the rule though, the rule ideology, and the traditional economic, social and political power" (60).

### 5.7.3 Universities

Certainly Greek Universities have the most important involvement in the implementation of the educational process.

Generally speaking, there are some doubts whether or not the universities in any country could be considered between the rank of other formal organisations or not (61). Usually, in many countries, they are national institutions and faculty staff are civil servants. The kind of authority they maintain, vis-a-vis with the public interest group, complicates the analysis of formulation process. In the majority of cases, universities attempt to maintain their power and control in the academic rather than the financial or administrative matters.

The Greek Constitution contains a specific article dealing with universities, ordering (62):

- (i) "research and teaching shall be free and the development and promotion thereof shall constitute an obligation on the part of the State. Academic freedom and the freedom to teach do not override the duty to obey the Constitution" and
- (ii) "University level education shall be provided exclusively by Institutions which are bodies corporate of public law and fully self-governed. The said institutions shall be under the supervision of the State and shall be entitled to financial support therefrom. They shall operate on the basis of the laws relating to their organisation" (63).

Within the Parsonian classification of types of organisations, they belong quite clearly in the pattern-maintenance organisations, centring primarily on educational and cultural functions. Thus

its goal is two-fold:

- (i) it has responsibility for the process of education and
- (ii) responsibility for creative modification of the cultural tradition through "research", as the law defines: "to produce and to impart knowledge through research and instruction.." (64).

The basic orientation of the university to the situation in which it operates and consequently guiding the activities of participant individuals, lies in its value pattern, which legitimises the main functional patterns of operations which are necessary to implement the goal, under typical conditions of the concrete situation (65).

Thus the value system of Greek Universities depends on the interpretation of the constitutionally safeguarded concepts of independence and freedom by the community of scholars in each particular university.

This interpretation survived through time and created a mechanism for reproduction and maintenance of the same ideology within Universities.

Thus, referring to the two most powerful universities of the country, the establishment of the University of Athens "was to train the country's leadership, and to create a centre of the classical Greek culture," while the University of Salonika "became the homestead of the new spirit in Greek culture" (66), since its establishment was in the aftermath of the political changes under the liberal government.

However, how these traditions are being reflected in the implementation of the reform of teacher education will be

analysed in the following chapter. Analysis through university personnel and the roles they play in its functioning, the law specifies,(67)

"The internal structure, organisation and function of the administrative, economic and technical services of the higher educational institutions, as well as the procedure and requirements for the appointment of staff for particular posts, are governed by the internal regulations of every such institution."

Within the conceptual framework of the Parsonian model of formal organisation, the technical level is composed of the schools and the departments. The latter constitutes the basic functional academic unit and covers the field of knowledge of a single discipline, while schools comprise a number of related disciplines. Each department is divided into sections which coordinate the instructions partly of the field of knowledge with which the department deals.

The managerial level consists of organs of sectional, departmental and school government.

Organs of sectional government are,

- (i) the sectional general assembly which consists of members of the teaching and research staff, two representatives of students and one representative of the postgraduate students, and
- (ii) the sectional director.

Organs of departmental government are,

- (i) the general assembly which consists of all the research and teaching staff, representatives of students (50 per cent) and representatives from special teaching staff (10 per cent of the number of members of the regular teaching and research staff).

(ii) the board, whose members are the head of the department, the directors of the section and one representative of the special post-graduate students.

(iii) the heads of the department.

Organs of school government are,

(i) the general assembly, which consists of the members of the general assemblies of the departments of the school.

(ii) the deanship with members consisting of the dean, the heads of the departments and one representative of the students of the department.

(iii) the dean.

At the top level, the interest group, there are three governing bodies of the Higher Educational Institutions. These are,

(i) The Senate. Its personnel is composed of the Rector, two Vice-Rectors, the Deans of the Schools, one representative of the teaching and research staff of each department, one representative of students of each department, of the special administrative and technical staff and five representatives of the special post-graduate students.

(ii) The Rectoral Council, whose members are: the Rector, two Vice-Rectors, the Dean of the Postgraduate School, one representative of the students and of the administrative staff.

(iii) The Rector.

From the above, it is evident that all collective administrative bodies of the three levels, are made up of all the teaching staff, thus ensuring the principle of participation

of all constituent groups of the university community in its administration.

Students constitute the wide public, which have easy access to the university administration, through their representatives.

Finally, mention should be made to their high degree of participation, which seems to be among the highest in the world (between 25-30 per cent of the total members in each collective body, except the Sector General Assembly, which allows participation only of two students) (68).

#### 5.7.4 The Federation of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers (DOE - Didaskaliki Omospondia Ellados)

The legal right of public employees to form unions and to affiliate with an outside labour organisation was recognised in the Greek Constitution. Essentially, it states,

"The Greeks have the right to establish non-profit making unions and associations, observing the laws of the state which, cannot, however, make the exercise of such right subject to previous permission by the Government" (69) and

"Restrictions on the right of association of civil servants may be imposed by law..." (70).

Almost all the pre-primary and primary school teachers who work in state schools are affiliated with the "Federation of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers" (DOE)(71).

Although this teachers' union was in existence before 1900 (it was established in 1873) it appeared as an effectively organised system after the fall of the dictatorship. Its collective goal is primarily to promote and protect the interests of its members as well as to contribute to the overall development of the educational system for the common good.

At the national level, the DOE operates with a simple administrative structure. The governing body is the Annual General Assembly in which participants are delegates from about 150 local educational organisations,

"The General Assembly is the master agent of DOE. It controls the participants of the Governing body of our Federation and approves or votes against the acts of the Governing board. It elects every time the new Governing board and formulates the organisation's politics, which should be followed during the term of the board's office as well as the important... problems that should be pushed forward for solution." (72)

At the local level, teachers are represented by an elective delegate (elected each year) who is the main channel of communication between the technical personnel (teachers) and the managerial (regional teachers' unions) which in turn participate in the General Assembly.

Membership in the DOE is open to any teaching personnel in public nursery and primary schools, without any social discrimination.

The fact that the interests of teachers are strongly tied to most educational policy questions reveals that they should play a major part in every analysis of participants in educational policy process. Usually they are targets of many educational policies so they retain the ultimate power to play a creative or reactive role.

A careful observation, however, demonstrates that the reactive role they played before the reform - through their organisation, in any conservative solutions to their demand for higher education - was in the end very creative in the genesis of the new policy.

Indeed, its leaders, since they were not satisfied with the old system were clearly among the most critical parti-

cipants of the policy of teacher education. Certainly, these critics have arisen more by concerns affecting their professional status as well as their conditions of work than by strictly educational questions.

DOE supported to a great extent the provision of the general Law of Higher Education and the ideologies, the basic values and the assumptions upon which it was based because as has been stated,

"With the satisfaction of our demand we did not see only the upgrading of our group from the economic point of view, but also from the view for the best educational provision of the children of our society. Our demand was accompanied by the necessity for social change and national development." (73)

However, it should be noted that the Federation of Primary and Pre-primary School Teachers for the time being is primarily concerned with the whole **question of courses in University Pedagogical Departments** and the various problems related to their function and organisation.

#### 5.7.5 Students' Organisations

Students are an important part of any academic system and through their activities they may sometimes contribute to the processes of policy framing and implementation.

They are the "clientele" of the University system enjoying the education, the provision of knowledge and all the kinds of ancilliary services. "Along with the faculty" they are the "major estate" of the university (74).

The Greek youth in educational institutions in the tertiary level is organised in to two different types of organisation, depending on the level of the educational establishment.



Thus, students in the higher educational Institutions, both the Higher Technological Institutions (TEI) and the Teacher Training Colleges are organised at the Institutional level in the "Students' Association" of each department while at the national level they are represented by the "National Students' Association of Greece" (Ethnikos Spoudastikos Syllogos Helladas-EΣΣΕ).

Students in University level institutions, which belong to the highest educational establishments of the country are differentiated from the above students not only in terms of their organisation but also in terms of their name. Thus the Law of Higher Education orders,

"The identity of phetete (the name of University student) is acquired through his registration in the A.E.I. (Highest Educational Institutions) and is **lost** with the receipt of the ptychio.." (75).

At the Institutional level, students of each university department constitute the "students' Association of the Department" which in turn is part of the Students' Union of each University.

At the national level, all university students through their University Union are represented by the National Students' Union of Greece (Ethnikí Phetetiki Enosi Helladas - ΕΦΕΕ).

In addition, the Law of Higher Education specifies not only the membership criteria of the former Union such as, (76)

"Members of a students' association may be all the students of the department, except those who have been crossed out"

but also the electoral system for the election of,

- (i) the regular or the substitute members of the administrative board of the association,
- (ii) the representatives of the administrative board

- in the departmental assembly and
- (iii) the electoral body of students which marks out the President of the department, the Dean, the Head of the University as well as the rest of the university organs (members).

Their organisational goal is affected primarily by both the education system and the political culture as well.

Thus, in most cases, through their unions students express their dissatisfaction on education focusing upon the selectivity of the educational institutions, the latter's lack of relevance with the modern world, the society's socio-economic and cultural values served by the system and finally the low material support available to them.

The two above mentioned students' organisations have both relevance for understanding the politics of teacher educational reform in Greece, because on the one side students of teacher training colleges introduced the consumer's demand for educational change, thus they participated partly through their activities in the genesis of the policy and on the other side, university students enjoy the policy's outputs and legally participate in the implementation since they form partly the body of each university department that ratifies appointments to the departmental personnel and in the case of unresolved conflict, makes the final decision (77).

When considering the Greek student activist organisations and movements, one must keep in mind that,

- (a) they seem to be basically national in nature and orientation rather than part of an international "consciousness" student movement.

- (b) Their activities are of a relatively short duration due in part to their transitory status which leaves little opportunity to develop experience in policy matters and in part to their ability to sustain organisational impetus either because of lack of organisational skills or financial resources.
- (c) In the majority of cases they are stimulated in general by broader political questions in society.

This was especially evident in the active resistance of Greek students on November 16, 1973, which led to a confrontation with the tanks of the military regime.

"The fall of the Junta began with the death of young Greeks in those autumn days, and one year later it had to give way to democracy" (78).

Student activism here was not only a key force against the dictatorship and directed towards democratic principles but also had an important role in precipitating societal political unrest.

Our discussion about formal and informal Greek political organisations relevant to the educational policy of teacher education in Greece has concentrated on those systems which had a major impact upon the policy processes either directly or indirectly.

The way in which members of each organisation participate in the politics of education undoubtedly reveals a complex pattern of relationships through which they seek to influence the policy process.

Certainly they do not all contribute to the policy making in the same way, since their role represents different modes of participation which are necessary conditions for a

policy change.

What we have tried to emphasise in all cases is the identification of agencies who play key roles in the politics of teacher education change.

There is, however, central to our analysis the question of how far these may be able to affect the policy processes.

Quite obviously, the issue itself leads to the question of power which individuals possess, thus this has become a useful starting point for our further analysis in the following chapter.

References - Chapter V

- (1) McLean, M. and Lauglo, J., "Introduction: rationales for decentralisation and a perspective from organisation theory" in Lauglo, J. and McLean, M., The Control of Educational: International Perspectives on the Centralisation-Decentralisation Debate, University of London Institute of Education, 1985, p. 19.
- (2) Ibid., p. 3.
- (3) Ibid., p. 6.
- (4) Ibid., p. 1.
- (5) Cramer, F.I. and Browne, S.G. in Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., New York, Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1965, pp. 36-37.
- (6) Holmes, B., "Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation in Democratic Society" in McLean, M. and Lauglo, J., The Control of Education, op.cit., p. 69.
- (7) Ibid., p. 67.
- (8) Blau, P.M. and Mayer, M.W., Bureaucracy in Modern Society, New York, Random House, 1967, p. 16.
- (9) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Societies, New York, Free Press, 1960, p. 16.
- (10) Ibid., p. 171.
- (11) Ibid., p. 171.
- (12) Ibid.
- (13) Ibid.
- (14) Ibid., p. 20.
- (15) Ibid.
- (16) Ibid.
- (17) Blau, P.M. and Meyer, M.W., Bureaucracy in Modern Society, op.cit., p. 9.
- (18) Parsons, T., "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organisation", in Halpin, A.W., Administrative Theory in Education, London, Collier-McMillan, 1958, p. 49.

- (19) Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, Glencoe, The Free Press of Glencoe, London, Collier-McMillan, 1947, p. 333.
- (20) Parsons, T., "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organisation", op.cit., p. 66.
- (21) Gilbert, M., "The Modern Business Enterprise" in Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, p. 110. 1979
- (22) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, Student Seminar Papers, Department of Comparative Education, University of London Institute of Education, 1975, p. 50.
- (23) Holmes, B., "Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation in a Democratic Society", op.cit., p. 68.
- (24) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 52.
- (25) Holmes, B., Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965, p. 160.
- (26) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 55.
- (27) Peterson, P., "An Overview of the Politics of Education in Post-War Europe", in Holmes, B., Final Report: A Cross-National and Inter-Disciplinary Analysis of Secondary Educational Change in England, France and Sweden, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U.S.A., 1970, p. 63.
- (28) Ibid., p. 64.
- (29) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, Student Seminar Papers, op.cit., p. 27.
- (30) Holmes, B., Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 52.
- (31) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, Student Seminar Papers, op.cit., p. 126.
- (32) Ibid., p. 128.
- (33) Constitution of the Republic of Greece, Greek Embassy in London, Press and Information Office, July 1975 Article 16, paragraph 2.
- (34) Ibid., Article 16, paragraph 5.
- (35) Ibid., Article 1, paragraph 2.
- (36) Ibid., Article 26, paragraph 1.

- (37) Ibid., Article 81.
- (38) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskermaton, Nomos plaisio No. 1566/85, Organismos Ekdoseas didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1965, Article 49, paragraph 8.
- (39) Ibid., Article 51.
- (40) Legg, R.K., Politics in Modern Greece, Stanford University Press, California, 1969, p. 125.
- (41) Ibid.
- (42) Mouzelis, N., "Paradosi ke allagi stin Elliniki politiki" in He Hellada se exelixi, Ed. Exandas, Athens, 1986, p. 153.
- (43) The Greek Constitution, 1975, Article 29.
- (44) These statements founded on the Declaration of the Leader's Party on 28.9.74.
- (45) Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis, Ed. Papazisi, Athens, 1977, p. 132.
- (46) Nea Demokratia, Ideologikes Arches, Katastatiko tis Neas Demokratias, Athens, 1986, p. 15.
- (47) Mouzelis, N., Paradosi ke allagi stin Elliniki politiki, op.cit., p. 149.
- (48) Ibid., p. 150.
- (49) Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima (PASOK) Diakirixi tis kivernitikis politikis, Athens, 4.7. 81, pp. 13-15.
- (50) Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima (PASOK), Diakirixi tis 3is Septembriou, 1974.
- (51) Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis op.cit., p. 197.
- (52) Ibid., p. 200.
- (53) Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima (PASOK), Diakirixi tis kivernitikis politikis, Athens, 4.7.81, p. 50.
- (54) Ibid., p. 55.
- (55) Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis, op.cit., p. 181.
- (56) Lyrintzis, Ch., Between Socialism and Popularism: the Rise of Pan-Hellenik Socialist Movement, Ph.D. Thesis, London School of Economics, 1985, Chapter VI, in Mouzelis, N., Paradosi ke allagi stin Helliniki Politiki, op.cit., p. 151.

- (57) Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis, op.cit., p. 209, (from the Constitution of the two Communist Parties).
- (58) Ibid., p. 216.
- (59) Ibid., p. 217.
- (60) Ibid., p. 255.
- (61) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, Student Seminar Papers, op.cit., p. 164.
- (62) Constitution of the Republic of Greece, 1975, Article 16, paragraph 1.
- (63) Ibid., paragraph 5.
- (64) Ypourg io Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Nomos Plaisio No. 1566/85, op.cit., Article 1, paragraph 2.
- (65) Parson, T., Structure and Process in Modern Society, op.cit., p. 21.
- (66) Wolfgang, R., "Greece: Students Wait for Reform" article in Western European Education, 1985, Vol. XVII, No.3, p. 22.
- (67) Efimeris tis kuberniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 16.7.1982, Vol. 1st, No. 87, Nomos 1268, Article 3, paragraph 3.
- (68) Stathopoulos, M., "Structure and Functioning of Higher Education Institutions: the New Greek Law", in CRE - Information, Quarterly published by the CRE-organe de la CRE, Geneva, 1985, p. 34.
- (69) Greek Constitution, 1975, Article 12, paragraph 1.
- (70) Ibid., paragraph 4.
- (71) Demaras, A., He metarrithmisi pou den egine, B. Volume, Ed. Hermes, Athens, 1974, p. 218.
- (72) Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas, Didaskaliko Vema No. 940/950, July-August, 1983, p. 3.
- (73) Ibid., p. 6.
- (74) Altbach, G.P., Comparative Higher Education, Research Trends and Bibliography, Mansell, London, 1979, p. 53.
- (75) Efimeris tis kuberniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Nomos 1268/16.7.1982, Article 24, paragraph 1.



- (76) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton,  
Nomos plaisio No. 1566/85, Article 79, paragraph 1.
- (77) Benn, C., "Bloodless Revolution in Greece's  
Universities", The Times Higher Education Supplement,  
9 April 1982.
- (78) Wolfgang, R., "Greece: Students Wait for Reform" in  
Western European Education, Vol. XVII, No.3, pp. 18-  
19.

## Chapter VI

THE POWER OF GREEK ORGANISATIONS RELEVANT TO PRE-PRIMARY  
AND PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY-MAKING

As seen in the analysis in the preceding chapters, the development of teacher education in Greece before the reform - viewed against the concepts of a profession - was unable to ensure an establishment of a truly professional group of educationists. Thus the investigation was concentrated on these specific issues of teacher preparation programmes which became the focus of demand for change by those who were in favour of the reform.

A further analysis showed how the political system responded to these demands and what policies were introduced on the particular specific aspects of teacher education.

Eventually, the study itself was necessarily focused on the question: "How these policies were formulated, adopted and implemented and by whom?"

In considering the relevant answer, the investigation draws attention on the conceptual framework of formal organisation and the mechanics of administration and control through decision-making processes.

Applying the theoretical outlook of formal analysis, presented in the previous chapter, to the present study the policy issue of teacher preparation programmes involves a rather different set of individuals or agencies within formal and informal organisations with respect to the specific issues of teacher education.

Within the policy arenas of teacher education for pre-primary and primary school teachers in Greece there are at least five relevant organisations. These are,

- (i) The national system of education.
- (ii) Political parties.
- (iii) Universities..
- (iv) Professional teacher' association.
- (v) Student - teachers.

Important to our analysis of the politics and governance of teacher education is an understanding of,

- (i) why some of the former Greek organisations have the general capacity to mobilise their resources in the interest of attainment of their goal;
- (ii) how the new policy on teacher preparation was formulated and adopted and
- (iii) who were involved in the decision-making process.

For purposes of clarifying the first aspect it is helpful to investigate some key notions of the role of power with respect to organisations while the last two aspects require analysis of the Greek educationally relevant organisations and the respective roles of the personnel involved.

#### 6.1 Power and Organisation

The utility of the concept of "power" in any comparative research of the politics of education might start from the general assumption that,

"in the study of politics, power is one of the most pervasive concepts. In fact some would argue that the study of power is the study of politics" (1).

Defining the topic in this way has at least two important consequences for our theme. First it can lead to a brief analysis of power to explicate the effectiveness of the operation of organisation in general and in particular the educationally relevant Greek organisations. Second,

might help to investigate thoroughly the positive power and the veto power of participants in teacher education in Greece. Thus, for example, whatever positive power members of the higher educational establishments possess, to formulate and adopt relevant policies, in the implementation of them, these members possess enormous veto power reflected on the professional and esoteric knowledge and skills of content and curriculum practices of teacher preparation programmes.

The nature and conceptualisation of power in the sociological writings have various theoretical outlooks depending upon the numerous traditions and schools of thought. Despite its vital importance it has been defined as a phenomenon or concept which is,

"too amorphous, sprawling or chameleon-like ever to be amenable to exact identification, to say nothing of anything that deserves to be called 'measurement.....' Since this is so, we must reconcile ourselves to the thought that where we are concerned with power, we must be satisfied to live with vagueness, indeterminateness and generality" (2).

However, our conception of power in the research associates the concept with a set of specialised mechanisms operating to bring about changes in the action of individual or collective units, in the process of social interaction.

Such treatment of power is to be found in the general sociological approach labelled "integrated theory" or "value theory" which is strongly represented in the writings of Talcott Parsons.

Generally speaking, there are two basic assumptions about the structural concepts of power, the "integration" and the "coersion" or "conflict" theory (3). Both are centred upon the processes which give rise to "common-value system"

and the social mechanisms which link the above system with other structures of society but have different approaches on the questions: how groups acquire power, what strategies they employ to hold on to power and how far these strategies follow the ideological line of their power (4).

In trying to use the notion of power within the framework of the integration theory, the basic assumption starts from the fact that consensus derives from natural identity of interest served by some type of cooperative action.

The development of this specific concept of power in the theory of organisation is related with the underlying social relations which allow to some positions in organisations more or less capacity to exercise power than the others.

In the light of formal organisation's analysis, the notion of power is central for the attainment of the system goal. Although,

"the value system legitimises the organisation's goal,..... it is only through power that its achievements can be made effective" (5).

This is because the organisation's collective goal rests upon the common value system which in turn sets out the major objectives which control the actions of the majority in the society.

Power is defined by Parsons as,

"generalised capacity to serve the performance of binding obligations by units in a system of collective organisations when the obligations are legitimised with reference to their bearing or collective goals" (6).

Moreover, he argues, such treatment of power could offer,

"a promising way to deal with certain of the most baffling difficulties that have dogged the analysis of power in the literature of political theory. Foremost among these difficulties were the problems

of specificity of conceptualisation as compared with the diffuseness of conceptions which virtually equate power with all forms of capacity to gain ends (the Hobbesian approach), the problem of the relations between the coercive and consensual aspects of power systems, the problem of balance between the hierarchical aspects of power and the existence of egalitarian elements in the structure of political systems...."(7).

To do this, he elaborates the analogy between power and money and develops four parallel functions of power in the polity (goal-attainment subsystem) to that of money in the economy (adaptive subsystem) (8).

Thus power is a kind of facility for the attainment of organisation's goal through a common "agreement" of the members of the society to legitimise leadership positions in developing policies and implementing decisions just as money has "value" because of common agreement to be used as the generalised medium of the economic process. It is,

"a generalised societal resource which is allocated to the attainment of a wide range of sub-goals and to organisations as the agents of the attainment of such goals" (9).

Clearly, such a perspective tends to follow from the Weberian definition of power which is defined as,

"the chance of a man or of a number of men to realise their own will in a communal action even against the resistance of others who are participating in the action" (10).

Defining the source of power in the Parsonian analysis Giddens observes that it (11),

"is... directly derivative of authority; authority is the institutionalised legitimisation which underlies power, and is defined as 'the institutionalisation of the rights of leaders' to expect support from the members of the collective" (12).

The foundations of this treatment of authority are laid on Weber's classification of three basic types of authority,(13)

- (i) the "rational-legal authority" which rests upon the authority of the impersonal order itself 'in a positively delineated set of powers or rights to exercise political responsibility in the social systems" (14).
- (ii) the "traditional authority" which may be defined in terms of the concrete traditional prescriptions of the traditional order, the authority of other persons above the particular status in a hierarchy and a sphere of arbitrary decision according to considerations of utility.
- (iii) the "charismatic" type of authority which is expressed by the leader as a matter of moral obligation thus based upon moral legitimacy rather than an institutionalised one.

These three types fit in the integration analytical scheme in terms of,

"on the one hand, of level of differentiation of the social system with reference to political function and, on the other hand, of stability of institutionalisation of the value system in this respect" (15).

In this connection the term "authority" indicates a particular class of institutional pattern in a social system, relevant to the normative control of political functions, which is entitled to receive support or to promote certain types of integration of the system in connection with the collective goals.

Precisely, it is a "complex of institutionalised rights to control the members of the society (16).. so far as these are essential conditions of effective and legitimised collective actions" (17). In fact, it gives the rights of

the "leaders" to expect support from the individuals of the collectivity. In political organisations,".... political support should be conceived of as a generalised grant of power, which, if it leads to electional success, puts elected leadership in a position analogous to a banker" (18).

Besides it can specify the process within an organisation by which, through decision-making some kinds of relevant measures are accepted, prescribed or enjoined which, without this decision process, could be outside the "authority" of the involved groups (19).

The relation between power and authority became the focus of two distinct themes of investigation: the formal-informal development of power in the organisation theory. In fact these studies were concentrated mainly on the exercise of power in terms of deviation from the formal structure, which assumes an initial equilibrium position based on the possession of some resources by the power-holder.

Clearly, the Parsonian view of "power" and "authority" is two-fold. First as two different stages in development where power could be conceived as "the degenerate or the immature form of authority" (20) and second, as "two alternative ways in which one person or group can structure the behaviour of others" (21). In fact, in both ways, "from the standpoint of subordination in the social world, power and authority would more likely be viewed as dual structures, both simultaneously present, in... continual interaction" (22).

This view implies that within an organisation authority or the binding obligations inside which power is exerted "legitimately" may itself be "an achieved phenomenon, and thus, in itself, the result of power" (23).



But the literature shows that what constitutes the "bases" for the operational definition of power may be different according to the concept of the organisation. Thus, in the Weberian model of formal organisation "... bureaucracy has been and is a power instrument of the first order" (24) and its administration "means fundamentally the exercise of control on the basis of knowledge" (25).

Consequently the primary sources of power in a bureaucratic administration lie in the role of specialised knowledge which, through the technological and scientific development in the means and modes of production, has become entirely indispensable.

In this connection, it is worth noting that such a possibility is treated in Clegg's statement, "power in organisation derives from control of the means and methods of production" (26). And although he suggests that this is a feature of the capitalist mode of production, Weber tends to apply it in both types of organisation of an economic system either on capitalistic or a socialistic basis (27). In a bureaucratic organisation, however, the specific issues of power and control based on expertise knowledge rest on the one hand "in technical knowledge which, by itself, is sufficient to ensure it a position of extraordinary power" (28) and on the other hand on the tendency to increase the power of its holders further "by the knowledge growing out of experience in the service" (29).

In addition, there is normally a further element in a bureaucracy which forms a reliable basis for the mode of exercising "power" over other persons: the belief in legitimacy.

The three types of development of legitimate authority based on rational, traditional and charismatic grounds (30)

rests upon the kind of legitimacy which is claimed, the type of obedience, the kind of administrative staff developed to guarantee it, and the mode of exercising authority.

The latter seems to have particular interest in our approach because it interprets the concept of power as the ability to exercise control over the resources or the action of the organisation's processes. In line with this, the use of power represents one way among others in which leadership positions produce a response to ensure the achievement of the aims desired by the majority of the members of the group.

In respect of the former issue, Parsons introduced a four-fold typology involving the main "channels" through which command an action could be exercised as well as the two basic "modes" of this control. The terms "situational" and "intention" channels are used to define the attempt of the ego to control the situation in which change is occurred or to control the intention of this change. Moreover, the forms of "positive" and "negative" sanctions interpret the "modes" of control to offer something desirable for the change or to hold out the threat of punishment. The main features of the above typology are (31),

- (i) Situational channel which applied positive sanction through the use of inducement. Here a distinction should be made between power and inducement by the means that "inducement is often a basis of power; and the reverse also may frequently be true - a person or group holding power is often in a position allowing access to various forms of inducement, including the offer of financial reward" (32).

- (ii) Situational channel which applied negative sanction through threats, such as the use of force in extreme cases. Certainly the use of force could not be interpreted as a criterion of power because frequently the use of negative sanctions, such as force, indicates an insecure basis of power rather than a powerful base. Thus there is always a distinction between the questions "how much power an organisation holds" and "what sanction it is possible to bring".
- (iii) Intention channel which applied positive sanction through the use of influence. Here the Parsonian scheme involved four types of influence, each one linked up with one of the four modes of interaction: political influence, fiduciary, influence based on "differential loyalties" and influence oriented to norms.
- (iv) Intention channel which applied negative sanction through the appeal of moral commitments.

In summary, it is directly in the logic of the whole analysis that the concept of power within organisations may be developed within the integration analytical scheme which has specific reference to the goals of collectivity and implies its integration with reference to this goal.

In political organisations the distribution and generation of power in the society operates as a factor related to the system effectiveness to the attainment of political goals. This broad type of organisation in a complex society includes not only organs of the government but various other organisations where the notion of incorporation is associated with the allocation of power in a political sense.

Seen in these terms the corporate aspect of formal organisation is identified with the political aspect.

This view provides an essential explanation why educationally relevant issues rest upon statutory power of organisations oriented to political rather than to professional goals.

In the light of the above discussion the Greek organisations relevant to teacher education, which have been presented in the earlier chapter, are studied as political organisations which exercise their statutory power to the attainment of political goals. Thus although the reform of teacher education is more relevant to education it tends to acquire political sense because of the political character in the corporate aspect of these organisations in relation with the allocation and use of their power.

The bases of power in political organisations could be defined by reference to,

- (i) the institutionalisation of the rights of the leaders on the legitimate authority of the power holders. Here is the case of the Greek State organisation, where the Government's power is legitimised by the Greek constitution.

The Universities also as an organisation base their power in the notion of autonomy provided by the Greek constitution.

- (ii) the quality and quantity of consumers' support. The Greek political parties, teachers' union and students as separate organisations have based their power on their consumers' support.

Here the notion implies a "double interchange" between the political organisation and the supporters, an "output" and "input" which involves on the one side the leadership responsibility to lead successfully the organisation to achieve political effectiveness and on the other side a generalised support to a political system's capacity for effective action.

- (iii) A kind of legal regulation of all organisational activity.

These three constitute the bases upon which the organisation introduces generalised claims to the loyal cooperation of its staff and of individuals outside the organisation on whose cooperation it depends.

The preceding discussion on the problem of power within organisations does not in any way claim a deep understanding of its, but attempts to illustrate that in the research the concern of power is an important element in the politics of teacher education. It therefore seem reasonable to continue with the production and allocation of power inside the Greek educationally relevant organisations.

Finally, it should be noted, that this way of proceeding from the standpoint of organisation theory, while starting from the general theoretical concern of "power" and "power holders" will attempt to continue with the exercise of power over decision making on teacher education policies by relevant agencies or individuals of the Greek educationally relevant organisation systems.

## 6.2 Power Structure and Decision-making in the Greek Educationally Relevant Organisations

The distribution of power in the Greek educationally relevant organisations can be characterised as a distribution of power in the role of participants in these organisations in relation to the three principal processes of the educational policy: formulation-adoption-implementation. In addition the aims are to reach the aspect of power of the above systems in terms not only of its distributive functions but also in terms of its generation.

This is consistent with the fact that, on the one hand "policies are subsets of the set of 'role expectations' about how an individual in a certain position should act in certain situations" (33) while on the other hand policy decisions are directly related with the concepts of "authorisation", "value systems", "legitimacy" and hence with the issues of power. Thus, in our consideration of who participates in teacher education policy change, we have to look at who does what in this process.

### 6.2.1 The Power of the State Organisation

The hierarchical structure of the State as an organisation has been well developed in earlier chapters and the qualitatively different functions at each level have been mentioned. Its commitment as a political organisation is the mobilisation of societal resources for the attainment of collective goals, for the formation and implementation of public policy. In this sense, the active instrumentalities of these processes constitute the form of government.

The 1976 Constitution states that "Greece shall be a

Parliamentary Democracy with a President as Head of the State"(34) within which "the Government determines and directs the general policy of the State, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and the Laws " (35).

In terms of the policy-making process, while "the right of proposing laws shall belong to Parliament and the Government" (36), "The legislative power shall be exercised by Parliament and the President of the Republic"(37) and "The Prime Minister shall safeguard... direct the activity... to implementing Government policy within the framework of the Law"(38).

In searching for the sources of this statutory power of the political system the 1976 Constitution clearly defines that,

"All powers are derived from the people, exist for the benefit of the People and the Nation and shall be exercised in the manner determined by the Constitution" (39).

Seen in these terms the grounding of statutory power lies upon a generally accepted rights and obligations applied to citizens of the state in such a way that they can contribute to the individual and national welfare and development.

This feature of legitimacy does not connect only with the value system of the organisation but also concerns existential beliefs about the world which lead beyond empirical knowledge and may be sought in the realms of religion and philosophy. Thus the Greek state, "due to historical circumstances, occupied the whole power in the system... of the Greek-Christian tradition" (40). Furthermore, a critical perspective in the Constitutional provision of the State, since 1821 reveals the fact that in relation with the statutory power, it tends to reserve and perpetuate it in the educational field. That means

that education had always an important political role not only as an instrument of selection and training of political leaders but also as the means of political use in the struggle of power.

Educational legislation rests on the jurisdiction of the national Parliament while the important role of its formulation and adoption falls to the political parties. The Minister of Education is principally appointed by the elected Government responsible for the educational policy on the basis of agreement of the political party. In educational policy proposals his power is moderated according to,

- (i) his personal characteristics, "qualities" and ability to press for money since "All bills... involving an increase in budgeting expenditure, if submitted by Ministers, shall not be introduced for discussion unless accompanied by a report of the General Accounting Office" (41) and "A bill involving expenditure.... shall not be introduced for discussion unless accompanied by... counter-signed by the competent Minister and the Minister of Finance"(42).
- (ii) His expertise in educational issues determines his competence in educational debates. Usually most Ministers of Education are politicians, whose experience in law or finance cannot equip them well in the field of education. Indeed, "Politicians holding elective office seldom propose new policy alternatives, but look rather to the education bureaucracy to produce specific proposals" (43). Naturally they seek for advice at the managerial level, which is the role of the Greek National Council of Education.



In policy adoption the power of the elected interest group falls on its parliamentary strength. This is particularly important in cases where the topic of education is a source of a rather sharp division in political parties. The Greek Socialist Government is an illustration of this approach, when the major reform bill in higher education was passed in 1982 during a short period, since the PASOK (Panhellenic Socialist Movement) was able to form a Socialistic Government without support from any of the other parties.

The tendency for educational discussions to be channelled through national political parties is not usually based on fundamental theoretical or ideological differences but often on general principles (44).

This view does not apply to the Greek context. We have analysed in the first two chapters that educational discussions in Greece among the two educational groups of traditionals and progressives are represented in the political scene by different political parties.

Moreover, in Chapter IV we have shown the fundamental theoretical and ideological differences between these educational groups, therefore educational discussions between politicians are certainly based on entirely different theoretical and ideological approaches.

In this sense, the reorganisation of pre-primary and primary teacher education is a radical approach which was adopted because of the parliamentary strength of the Government in power.

It can be said that during these discussions students' demand was rather weak and operated indirectly through their active participation in local political parties. Hence, there

is some doubt how far they had been filtered before coming to the attention of the party leadership.

On the whole, in the political organisation of the State there are two different types of participants, elected politicians and appointed educational officials. In respect to the educational system both types have a common set of interests, but distinctive resources of their power and play a particular role in the policy.

Elected politicians in the Greek state are: the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister and the Parliamentarians, in other words, all the governmental leaders who are politically responsible for the welfare of the State. Within the context of national election, education creates always national headlines, since it is a very important political and social issue in Greek society. Their role in the policy-making process appears with the following characteristics: (45)

- (i) in policy formulation it is possible to react to the manner in which educational innovation is attempted or to force educational officials to formulate some programme to resolve the problem;
- (ii) in policy adoption, their role rests as a ratifier of the change or they may exercise veto-power over proposals of the bureaucracy which they consider as a political liability.
- (iii) For the politician the most important concern is "to reap political profit in terms of constituent support and avoid politically damaging reactions from the public or interest groups within that public" (46). Thus "the underlying dynamic of decision for the

politician is a calculus of justification" (47).

Education officials are appointed educationists, directly related to the education establishment, at national, regional, local or institutional level. They could be appointed Ministers of Education and their cabinets, other high or middle-level officials in the ministry, general inspectors, regional or local school officials and school heads. Depending on their role and specific function in the field of education they may be labelled as "professional educators", "administrators" or "political types" (48).

Their role and consequently the exercise of their power is very important in,

- (i) the function of educational planning;
- (ii) their interaction with the education counterparts in shaping the direction of policy proposals and directives;
- (iii) the generation and selection of alternative policy proposals.

#### 6.2.2 Political Parties and Their Power

In the first place, after the fall of the Junta in 1974, the right wing party - New Democracy- monopolised authority for almost seven years.

Although the principle ideology and the intellectual orientation of the conservative party on the role of education in the socio-economic and political development of the country did not change, it was mainly the particular circumstances of the social change which had occurred that pressed its leaders necessarily to give priority to some educational reforms.

These reforms did not contribute actually to the professional education of pre-primary and primary school teachers since such a change was desirable neither for the political considerations of the government in power nor for the majority of the professors of universities.

Thus, the right-wing party, possessing not only the statutory power in the policy decision but also having the support of the opposition party, which had the highest number of opposition deputies (the Union of Democratic Centre) guaranteed an almost unanimous vote for the adoption of the educational reform proposals. In fact the socialist and the leftist parties attacked the draft bills at all stages of their development but their opposition was not effective, given their lack of political strength.

On the contrary, since the political elections of 1981 the ultimate statutory power changed from the right wing to the socialist party. Relating this power with the state and the society, PASOK "followed rather the typical process of vertical integration which was followed always in Greece by the political parties" (49) using "criteria... political" (50) and "attempting systematically to put 'friends' of it not only at the top but in the whole sphere of State's administration" (51).

The great support it gained from its wide public strengthened its power again in the latest elections of 1985, thus it kept the statutory power in all decision making processes (New Democracy, 40.8 percent, PASOK 45.8 per cent, KKE 9.9 per cent and KKE inter. 1.37 per cent) (52).

In educational terms the above view pre-supposes a governmental will for the successful implementation of the recent reform of teacher education, since for the time being, the

inbalance of political power in the Parliament shows how ineffective are the opposition parties. Certainly if all these parties work together, the balance may be restored, but this is impossible on the one side due to the wide ideological differences behind the two parties and on the other side the communist parties were in favour rather than opposed to the major educational draft bills proposed by PASOK.

A closer glance, however, reveals that inside the PASOK's political party primarily a basis of power is its leader, who is constantly seeking to make the party into his own instrument with statements like "I express the legality in the Movement" (53).

His view that education is the foundation of the change and his personal interest in education as President of the Department of Economic Studies in the University of Berkley U.S.A. constitutes a highly concerned figure with the educational policy important enough to satisfy his supporters and to keep their trust in the consequences of his own educational decision.

### 6.2.3 The Power of Universities

There are two considerable sources of power in the organisation of universities which have much to do with their effective functioning, their role and their ethos:

- (i) it is that of tradition and history and
- (ii) the impact of moral authority (54).

The most important traditional values of the university are shaped by the general normative model which assumes that it,

"ought to be a community of scholars (masters and students) dedicated to the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake by research and its dissemination through teaching" (55)

and if it is to perform this task,

"its members ought to be free to engage in disputations and to express radical opinions inside and outside their field of expertise" (56).

Thus far the development of two traditional concepts have been the key focus of the regulating norms of their power:

- (i) the idea of university autonomy;
- (ii) the notion of academic freedom.

The Greek Constitution, among other things, contains specific articles dealing with universities in which it safeguards the complete administrative autonomy of them and guarantees academic freedom of research and teaching. The Institutional forms given to both concepts have protected scholars and enabled them to perform their commitment to the search for and dissemination of knowledge over the years.

But how far <sup>does</sup> the amount and nature of the Greek university autonomy reflect the general regulating norms?

Typically, university autonomy implies that a community of scholars ought to be free to run its own affairs without outside interference. That means, regardless of the way the university is financed, should itself (57)

- (a) determine the content of teaching and research;
- (b) make appointments and determine conditions of service;
- (c) prescribe the limits of social criticism;
- (d) maintain discipline within the community and protect members from the civil authorities.

At the same time, the autonomy of the university safeguards

academic freedom which implies that individual professors ought to be free to, (58)

- (a) accept students of their choice or reject them;
- (b) choose what to teach and how to teach it;
- (c) examine students in any way they think fit;
- (d) make the appropriate awards admitting former students to full membership of the community;
- (e) academics should select for appointment and promote colleagues.

These concepts of autonomy and freedom are reflected partly in the institutional arrangements of the Greek Universities, because constitutionally the term "autonomy" refers mainly to questions concerning the selection of teaching and other personnel for institutions for higher education, as well as the election of their administrative bodies (59).

Thus, while they have a considerable autonomy in shaping the curriculum and content, they have relatively little concerning the fundamental rules for the organisation and functioning. The latter, according to the Constitution, are governed by Law, that is, an Act of the State.

In addition, the traditional concepts of the autonomy of Greek Universities have been **compromised in part** because of the Constitutional order to entrust the State with the supervision of the higher educational institutions. In fact, however, this legal right of the State for interference in the governance of higher institutions is considerably limited in practice.

It was only during the period between 1967-1974, under the military government in power, that political authority continually interfered in the university activities and professors

"were dismissed or denounced and persecuted just as the students" (60) and "universities were organised under strict bureaucratic regulations" (61).

But academic freedom is an institution which safeguards only the democratic structure of universities, since only the conditions of democratic control guarantees the quality of education and the upgrading of the content of new knowledge. Consequently, the democratic government which was formed following the fall of the dictatorship have legally institutionalised the concept of democratic university and strengthened again their power in terms of the notion of "autonomy".

In a sense, as traditional Greek university structure followed the old German model, academic freedom was based on the monolithic power of the full chairholder, and its exercise became the personal affair of the individual professors.

The legislative change introduced over the past five years was an attempt to disseminate the former power by strengthening both "external accountability and internal participation in the area of university management... by admitting to non-professional staff and students on/the appropriate management committees... Hitherto, authority in Greek universities had cleaved to the traditional model..." (62).

In the light of this view, how could tradition and history maintain sources of university power?

As the Prime Minister, Mr. Papandreou himself stated,

"... rejection of the structures and ideological one-sidedness of the traditional authoritarian university does not necessarily mean rejection of the intellectual tradition and history. What we must be careful of is the reactionary forces' effort to defend authoritarian university structures with the pretence of protecting a country's intellectual tradition.



The factor of the Greek intellectual tradition for Greece... plays an important and principal role. Anything that has endured time, that has become part of the social consciousness and acquired historic duration, belongs to the intellectual tradition of a country. Intellectual tradition does not mean unchangeable values. It means delivery of knowledge, of values, and cultivation have been redefined in their passage through time" (63).

Greek universities quickly lost some important elements of their autonomy and naturally the reaction of the ordinary professors and of political forces with conservative inclinations was violent. They considered some regulations of the new law "unconstitutional" - between them the principle new regulations was the removal of power from the ordinary professors - and resorted to court action.

The whole matter marked the development of Greek higher educational institutions for more than two years while the uncertain outcome of the "judicial battle" influenced very deeply the university process and divided the university community in two fields: the supporters and the critics (64). Although details are beyond the purpose of our analysis, it is worthwhile to mention some basic characteristics of the historic "judicial battle" since the latter is directly relevant to the distribution of power in the university system. The question of unconstitutionality, raised by the professors, was judged by two equal courts of the country: the courts of civil jurisdiction (the Arios Pagos, the Supreme Court of that jurisdiction) and the highest administrative Court of the State (the Council of the State). And while the first found the relevant regulations in conformity with the law, the second found some of them contradictory to constitutional rules.

This procedure led to the disagreement between the two Courts of the State and the issue submitted to the Highest

Special Court by the Minister of Justice.

The final decision was partly justified and disappointed both sides because the main features were:

- (i) the constitutionally recognised participation of students' representatives in the internal organisation (any percentage) and
- (ii) the constitutional inconformity of the participation of lecturers in the same unified body with the professors of the three ranks.

One thing is clear: the notion of academic autonomy, long considered necessary for the effective functioning of the powerful Greek universities has been called in to serious question by demands for accountability. The public authority-government has been the winner in the "struggles" against the traditional right of the university to maintain autonomy in terms of internal governance and definition of its own academic goal.

It is possible, however, to assume that their power is relying partly in another source, that is of moral authority. This concept is invoked "in deciding whether a certain course of action is right or wrong" (65). There are various theories concerning the educators' moral authority regarding its sources as they are: students, parents, local community, administrators, national community or religious and various ideological principles.

Within the university sphere the final judgement as to "right" or "wrong" is traditionally vested in the "authority" of the regular professors, which in fact allowed the establishment norms of "ruling teaching".

In this sense the ultimate source of moral authority is concerned mainly with the professional authority and the public responsibility and capacity merely to achieve the academic goal.

But the "golden age" in which universities were truly autonomous is long past, and for the time being their relations with society is one of the most perplexing issues.

Similarly, in the Greek universities before the reform Law, the professors who had the final judgement in determining the boundaries between "right" and "wrong", ensured their power through science, thus imposing their ideology through the teaching content and examining system. Now they are called to seek their moral authority from the democratic ideals of the national Greek community which has implications,

- (a) in the upgrading of the content which should define the state's political and socio-economic development;
- (b) improvement in the ways of teaching in order "to equip the young people with the ability to make their own choices" (66).

Such an approach to the analysis of power in terms of the source of moral authority brings the question,

- Who should have the power to determine whether University professors are in fact teaching the student-teachers according to these ideals?

Within the defined principle of democratic ideals of the new Law, the teacher preparation programmes of the new departments of education should be adequately effective to provide a genuine profession of education.

Consequently, only the members of the higher educational establishment - educationists and academics - have the power to provide the student-teachers with the esoteric knowledge, skills and professional expertise necessary for the teaching profession without accepting either national or local domination of education.

It is, therefore, possible to insist that the decisions as to how to implement the educational policy of teacher education set by the legally institutionalised ideals of the Greek democratic university, rest with the regular professors of the departments of education, since they have the "veto" power in the content and curriculum practice.

At the heart of the analysis of the teaching profession the most important assumption is that these decisions "should rest with educators if education is a profession" (67) since they claim to have scientific expertise in education.

But the term educational "scientific expertise" in Greece unfortunately has been seen always in relation to the academic disciplines. These corresponded to the academic subjects in the secondary school curriculum and the pedagogical-professional part of the programme was placed on theoretical studies while practical skills "flow naturally from theoretical knowledge or are required incidentally and experientially" (68).

Thus the Philosophical School of Athens states,

"... what ought to be taught is perhaps more important than "how"; but this problem concerns the scientist who knows the situation rather than the scholar of pedagogy" (69).

The situation in practice took the form of differences in emphasis between the "how" and the "what", or between the "methodology" and the "subject-matter" in the preparation of pre-primary and primary school teachers, and unfortunately, it seems that it is the beginning of a heated controversy between academics and educationists as we will see later on.

Nevertheless, although there are the above two sources of university power and autonomy, there are three other important issues which contributed to their weakness. These are

- (a) government funding of higher education,
- (b) a tradition of academic involvement in politics, and
- (c) massive public demands on universities (70).

Following the former issues, within the Greek higher education,

- (a) the Ministry of Education is responsible for providing funds to the universities as well as to allocate finance for research. Furthermore, all personnel (including professors) are civil servants and from time to time various restrictions are placed by government authorities on the appointment. In so doing both finance and state's legal interference in university affairs, are influential on the lack of autonomy.
- (b) Politicisation of Greek universities was always an important concern and motivated not only from governmental interference in academic policy but also from the involvement of the universities themselves. The result was "... Universities and their elected representatives to be turned into serving keepers of the so-called statute" (71).

Precisely, it is the influence of the University of Athens on the overall development of education in Greece that played a great role.

The professors of the university used to serve as counsellors to the Ministry of Education, thus they had a decisive influence on the educational process. Traditionally, since its establishment, <sup>they</sup> determined the ideals of the Greek culture, which should be that of "Helleni-Christian" civilisation (72).

The hegemonic status of the University of Athens

in any educational reform and decision-making process was always conservative and against any change. And since it determined directly the educational orientation of the Government, it is well understood why the whole educational system, including teacher training colleges, tended to produce stability.

Generally speaking, the close relations between universities and politics, was a natural phenomenon, since a historical perspective reveals that the development of the Greek University has closely followed some major social reforms or attempts at such reforms (73).

Even in the latest reform of higher education the main concern was,

"the political responsibility of the researcher and teacher and consequently of the political function of scientific research and the teaching of science"... and

"how scientific knowledge is a form of power" which "creates the prerequisite for its political use" (74).

- (c) The massive public demand for higher education is indeed a world-wide problem, faced by governments which in turn increase their interest in the operation and performance of higher education and press for solutions.

Undoubtedly, this is not an unimportant issue that can be considered in isolation from the other two issues, because financial, legal or political interference of the State in the internal life of an academic institution relates directly to the demand for more control over the admission of students, since it is one aspect of university-society relations.

For example, since 1984 the number of places into tertiary level institutions has been an issue of vigorous

controversies between the Ministry of Education and the rectors of higher institutions (75) because the first tend to increase the number in contrast with the latter who maintain that the quantity of students is against the quality of the offered studies.

6.2.4 Didaskaliki Omospondia helladas - DOE -  
The Federation of Pre-primary and Primary School  
Teachers and its Power

The power of pre-primary and primary school teachers to influence education policy through its organisation may be better understood in relation with the notion of a professional organisation. Generally speaking, the professional organisation,

"provides the machinery by which the members of an occupational group can do collectively what is impossible for them to do individually" (76).

So long as professional organisation operates on this basis, justification for DOE derives on the one hand from the fact that its members are all teachers of the young children and on the other hand part of its collective goal is directly relevant with the professional status of its members.

But does DOE reach the standards of a strong professional organisation or is it a Federation where individuals are doing the same kind of work, but **without professional status**? If it is a leading professional organisation then we can expect a great deal of interference with professional autonomy in all specific issues of teacher-education, if it is not, it is probably inevitable that its power could not be sought from the profession itself.

In Chapter III, we have analysed the criteria on the basis of which an organisation may be judged to be professional. These are briefly,

- (i) members of a profession should perform a public service on the basis of a code of ethics;
- (ii) members of a profession should have esoteric knowledge and skills acquired over a long period of training and
- (iii) members of a profession should determine control of entry,, admission and exclusion fro membership.

Moreover, our further analysis showed that while Greek pre-primary and primary school teachers satisfy the first criteria they could not claim the same for the other two. As a result, DDE could not be considered as a professional organisation in the sense we described above and thus the principle of professional authority, as a source of power, is not applied as in the case of university professors in determining the curriculum content in the universities.

However, the growing strength of this organisation especially after 1981 seems to be in a way relating to the political systems.

In Greece, the proportion of teachers who prefer the socialist parties is substantially higher than the proportion of leftist or right-wing in the population at large. These political preferences are reflected in the annual elections for leadership and the policy stands of their organisations. Thus in this case, the source of power that the organisation enjoys is the tendency for politicisation.

The role of the organisation and the growth of its power are justified in Coombs' opinion as, (77)



"To operate effectively as an interest group within a competitive party system, it is prudent to maintain some distance from each of the political parties... In some cases, however, teacher organisations have tied their fortunes rather closely to the fortunes of certain political parties. The effect of such an association between interest group and political party is to cast the interest group in the role of critic and sometimes blocker of government initiative when the opposition party is in power, while savouring the prospect of ministry positions and the control that will provide when and if the party with which they are allied comes in to power."

In the light of the former view, some statements on behalf of the organisation's leadership, - like,

"Today there has been established all the assumptions on the basis of which we are not simple spectators of the role of the Government, we are not lacking in judgement in receiving the governmental decisions" (78)

or

"... this Government, we do not see like the previous Government. This Government,.... is the Government of the working Greek people... Is the Government which came into power through the struggle and support of progressive and democratic powers. For the Change... I call all the members of the union to support the effort of Change.." (79)

may be considered strong enough to support our argument about the political preferences of the teachers' organisation leadership.

Furthermore, it is justified through the interchange relationships with the Government from the fact that,

"The Ministry of Education, the Government of Change, believes ... that the word and the responsibility for the course of education should belong first and foremost to the educationist" (80)

But "politicisation" as a source of power in teachers' organisation has some weakness in the sense that it may develop some kind of organisation's dependence on party political or ideological principles or may have a weak reactive role as a critic of some aspects of the policy process.

However, under the present circumstances, the overall trend appears to be towards increasing the power of teachers' organisations in the educational policy making processes.

#### 6.2.5 The Power of Students' Organisation

Two variables may be considered of a great importance in any analysis concerning the source of power of Greek students: the nature of the academic system and the political atmosphere of the country. Both are highly complex factors because they reflect a variety of norms and values instilled by both the political culture and the school system.

Within Greek society the two factors influence each other and both together have been proved to be powerful forces in stimulating student activism. The inadequate academic conditions of the higher education system, the problems of the universities, the needs of the students and their dissatisfaction in general with the academic system, all found expression in demands of a general political nature which eventually built up a tradition of their involvement in intellectual and political movements. Moreover, this view may explain why the majority of students are organised in politically communist organisations.

Thus, their impact on the educational change goes beyond the reactive activity which usually has an indirect, disruptive influence upon the policy and creates a problem. Students are often considered instrumental in political affairs and informally it is expected that they will participate in politics. Legitimation for such participation derives, among others, from the active resistance of students during the

seven-year dictatorship period, their independence struggles and even sacrifices for the restoration of democracy. Thus since the dramatic student movement on November 16, 1973 which had a major political impact on the Greek society, in recent years, student organisations received the most attention by the public and officials about their increasingly important role and social responsibility.

This well established tradition of student political involvement has contributed to the potential power of student activism. In reference to the educational policy of teacher education, students of teacher training colleges were the least powerful group which may be considered in bringing about educational change although their movements had been influential on the genesis of the policy.

In this sense, the strike of these students in the winter of 1975, (10.1.1975), although <sup>it</sup> did not bear any political accent, was the beginning of activist movements stimulated by demands for a profound professional education and set the stage for what their followers supported and the socialist government then later completed. Criticism of the ways teachers for pre-school and primary level were educated was always coupled with general discontent over the policy the conservative government followed.

In the following years, a number of similar strikes by students of teacher training colleges focused on the demand for university preparation courses, proved essentially successful in stimulating teacher education reform. On February 26, 1980, one year before the election, the strike of these students was more noticeable because all teacher training colleges of the country were shut down for 24 days and the govern-

ment pressed strenuously for response.

From the above, it would be suggested, that student associations had only marginally affected the stages of formulation and adoption of teacher education reform.

On the contrary, students of university departments of education are more powerful and under the new law of higher education seem to have a key role in higher academic governance. Their power does not rest only upon the tradition of political involvement but also has been legitimised by the law itself which fully justifies their effect on internal university matters. Thus, Article 2 of the Law for higher education states,

"All persons employed in higher educational institutions as well as students are free to express their themselves collectively by means of their unions, the functions of which are to be facilitated by the university authority" (81)

In addition,

".... the students' union of each department... operates... as an organisation governed by private law..." (82).

Their impact on internal governance is quite substantial, since

"The students' representative and the alternate are members of the Senate and are elected by the student members of the Senate" (83)

Furthermore within each department,

"The General Assembly consists of the teaching and research staff of the department, student representatives equal in number to the number of teaching and research staff..." (84).

Finally, their participation plays an important role not only in decision-making of the governing bodies of the Higher Educational Institutions but also in matters of teaching and research staff, their appointment and promotion because the law orders clearly,

"The teaching of the members of teaching and research staff is assessed every semester by students of the classes which they teach" (85).

This principle of participation, emerging from the effort of democratisation and modernisation of higher education, reveals how seriously university students are taken by government officials. On the other hand the students' political and intellectual support for the Socialist Movement was waiting for an actual demonstration of democratic change, which could not be omitted.

However, to return to our theme, students' organisation in the process of the implementation, seems to be more influential in their ability to react against any policy which is not to their liking than to demonstrate a maturity with long term effect.

The previous discussion has stressed that the educationally relevant Greek organisations can do much to relate the success of the policy making process to the quality of the teaching profession. In short, much depends on the quantity of power they hold to influence this development. But with what degree of participation were these organisations placed in the politics of teacher education?

The answer is to be found in the next chapter.

References - Chapter VI

- (1) Blais, A., "Power and Causality", Quality and Quantity, 8, p. 45, in Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1979, p. 31.
- (2) Partridge, P.H., "Some Notes on the Concept of Power", Political Studies, 11.3.1962, p. 107.
- (3) Giddens, A., "Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons" in Sociology, Vol.2, No.3, Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1968, p. 257.
- (4) Ibid., p. 269.
- (5) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Societies, Collier-Macmillan, London, 1960, p. 41.
- (6) Parsons, T., "On the Concept of Political Power" p. 237, in Giddens, A., Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons, op.cit., p. 259.
- (7) Parsons, T., Sociological Theory and Modern Society, Free Press, New York, 1967, p. 297.
- (8) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Societies, op.cit., pp. 41-44.
- (9) Ibid., p. 42.
- (10) Hans, N., Gerth, A., and Wright Mills, C., From Max Weber, Oxford University Press, New York, 1958, p. 180.
- (11) Giddens, A., Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons, op.cit., p. 260.
- (12) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Society op.cit., p. 186.
- (13) Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, The Free Press, New York, 1964, p. 57.
- (14) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Society, op.cit., p. 189.
- (15) Ibid.
- (16) Ibid., p. 185.
- (17) Ibid., p. 186.
- (18) Giddens, A., Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons, op.cit., p. 268.
- (19) Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Society, op.cit., p. 198.

- (20) Gouldner, A., The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology Heinemann, London, 1970, p. 294.
- (21) Ibid.
- (22) Ibid.
- (23) Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1979, p. 68.
- (24) Weber, M., Essays in Sociology, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1948, p. 337.
- (25) Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, op.cit., p. 359.
- (26) Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, op.cit., p. 123.
- (27) Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, op.cit., p. 338
- (28) Ibid., p. 339.
- (29) Ibid.
- (30) Ibid., p. 325.
- (31) Giddens, A., Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons, op.cit. p. 260.
- (32) Ibid., p. 266.
- (33) Coombs, S.F., "Who Participates in Educational Change - and How?" in King, E., Reorganising Education: Management and Participation for Change, SAGE Annual Review of Social and Educational Change, Vol. 1, 1977, London, p. 75.
- (34) Greek Constitution of 1976, Article 1, paragraph 1.
- (35) Ibid., Article 82, paragraph 1.
- (36) Ibid., Article 73, paragraph 1.
- (37) Ibid., Article 26, paragraph 1.
- (38) Ibid., Article 82, paragraph 2.
- (39) Ibid., Article 1, paragraph 3.
- (40) Kokkotas, P., O rolos tis pedeias stin economiki anaptixi tis Hellados, Ed. S. Tounta, Athens, 1978, p. 76.
- (41) Greek Constitution of 1976, Article 75, paragraph 1.
- (42) Ibid., Article 75, paragraph 3.

- (43) Coombs, S.T., Who Participates in Educational Change - and How? op.cit., p. 80.
- (44) Holmes, B., Problems in Education, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965, p. 169.
- (45) Coombs, S.F., op.cit., p. 80.
- (46) Ibid.
- (47) Ibid.
- (48) Ibid., p. 81.
- (49) Mouzelis, N., "Paradosi ke allagi stin Elliniki politiki" in He Hellada se exelixi, Ed. Exantas, Athens, 1986, p. 156.
- (50) Ibid.
- (51) Ibid., p. 157.
- (52) Manesis, A., "He exelixi ton politikon thesmon stin Hellada" in He Hellada se exelixi, Ed. Exantas, Athens, 1986, p. 42.
- (53) Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis, Ed. Papazisis, Athens, 1977, p. 204.
- (54) Altbach, G.P., Comparative Higher Education: Research Trends and Bibliography, Mansell, London, 1979, p. 51.
- (55) Holmes, B., Some Consideration of Method in Comparative Education (Student Seminar Papers), Department of Comparative Education, University of London Institute of Education, 1975, p. 84.
- (56) Holmes, B., "Universities, Higher Education and Society" in The World Yearbook of Education, 1971-72, Evans Brothers, Ltd., London, p.4.
- (57) Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, (Student Seminar Papers), op.cit., p. 84.
- (58) Ibid., p. 85.
- (59) Stathopoulos, M., "The New Greek Law (1982): Structure and Functioning of Higher Education Institutions, in CRE-Information, Geneva, p. 31, 1985.
- (60) Wolfgang, Rieger "Greece: Students Wait for Reform" in Western European Education, Vol. XVII, No.3, p. 23.
- (61) Ibid.
- (62) Neave, G., "University systems in Europe: Greece" in CRE-Information, No.77, 1st Quarter/1er Trimestre 1987, Geneva, p. 34.



- (63) Papandreou, A., "Greece: The University - Yesterday and Tomorrow" in Western European Education, Council of Europe, Spring 1987, Vol. XIX, No.1, p.13.
- (64) Bliatkas, K., "Sti vouli itropologies gia ta anotata idrimata" in Newspaper, Makedonia, 3.8.1985.
- (65) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice Hall, U.S.A., 1956, p. 49.
- (66) Papandreou, A., "Greece: The University - Yesterday and Tomorrow", op.cit., p. 12.
- (67) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit. p. 79.
- (68) Kazamias, A., "The Education of Teachers (Elementary and Secondary) in Greece", in European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol.8, No.2, 1985, p. 131.
- (69) School of Philosophy, University of Athens, "Ipomnima epi ton Kyvernetikon Metron peri tis Pedeias .", (Memorandum on the Governmental measures on Education, in E.E.F.S.P.A., Vol.14, Athens, 1963-64, p. 593.
- (70) Altbach, G.P., Comparative Higher Education, op.cit. p.50
- (71) Fragos, Ch. "He allages sto Elliniko Panepistimio" in Synchroni Ekpedefsi, Vol.7, April-June, 1982, p.12.
- (72) Kokkotas, P., Orolos tis Pedeias sti stin ekonomiki anaptixi tis Hellas, op.cit., p. 79.
- (73) Gavroglou, K., "University Reform Laws in Greece: an historical overview", in CRE-Information, Geneva, p.20 1986
- (74) Papandreou, A., "Greece: The University of Yesterday and Tomorrow", op.cit., p.8.
- (75) Bliatkas, K., "Diastasi apopseon gia tis miosi arithmou isakteon se A.E.I." in Newspaper, Makedonia, 27.1.1986.
- (76) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, op.cit. p. 257
- (77) Coombs, S.F., Who Participates in Educational Change? op.cit., p. 85,
- (78) Didaskaliki Omospondia Hellenas, "He Dynamiki tou Sindikalistikou mas Kinimatos" in Didaskaliko Vema, No. 940-950, July-August, 1983.
- (79) Papachristos, M., "Afti I Kivernisi den ine san tis proi goumenes" ibid., p. 14.
- (80) Moralis, P., "I efthini gia tin poria tis Ekpedefsis aniki kirios stous Ekpedeftikous", ibid., p. 26.
- (81) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 16.7.1982, Vol. 1st No. 87, Nomos 1268, Article 2, paragraph 3 (a).

- (82) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Nomos plaisio No. 1566/85, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985, Article 79, paragraph 1.
- (83) Nomos 1268, op.cit., Article 2, paragraph 6, (b).
- (84) Ibid., Article 8, paragraph 2 (a).
- (85) Ibid., Article 15, paragraph 5 (a).

## Chapter VII

THE POLITICS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Thus far, applying the conceptual framework we have analysed in the previous chapter to the present research, within the policy arenas of teacher education in Greece five groups have been identified as more educationally relevant:

- (i) Politicians, who represent members of the "Public Interest Group".
- (ii) Administrators, who consist of the "managerial" group.
- (iii) Educationists and academics, who belong to the "technical group".
- (iv) Teachers, who represent the professional interest group.
- (v) Student teachers who are the consumers or the clients in Parsonian terms.

Having identified these participants and the policy role in terms of the power they possess, subsequent analysis may be based on the actual contribution from each one of them to the policy making process of recent teacher educational reform and their interaction within the Greek political culture.

### 7.1 The Genesis of the Policy-Debates Before the Reform

It has been stated in earlier chapters that the demand for policy change in the system of teacher education came primarily from groups inside the educational system like the Union of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers, the students of Teacher Training Colleges, the educationally relevant progressive group of intelligentsia, as well as outside it from the political parties. Their primary aim was the integration

of preprimary and primary teacher education within the universities with the establishment of university pedagogical departments of education.

This desirable integrated model was presented in the educationally relevant political debates by PASOK which, before the political elections of 1981, had declared that its realisation was among the contributory factors for the promised social and educational "change".

And while teachers and students tried to direct their demand to the Ministry of Education through the use of various memoranda and very often by strikes or abstentions (students' abstentions on 10.1.1975, 14.1.1975 for an indefinite time, on 20.3.1978 for three days) another group appeared in the arena of debate about the future of Teacher Training Colleges. It was the teaching personnel of Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon which were demanding persistently a solution for the problem of teacher preparation and for their future careers.

These people were divided into two groups, correspondingly to the division of the teaching staff which we have mentioned in Chapter IV: first, the Sindesmos Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion Pithiouchon Panepistimion imedapis (The Association of Teacher Training Colleges' professors graduates of Greek Universities). According to the title the members of this group were graduates of Greek Universities, without post-graduate studies, the majority of whom used to teach the academic subjects in college preparation courses. Second, the Enosi Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, (The Union of Teacher Training Colleges' professors) was composed of graduates from Greek Teacher Training Colleges who received post-graduate studies in pedagogy abroad and used to teach the

pedagogical subjects of the teacher training course. Among them, while the first group supported teachers' and students' demand "asking from the State the abolishment of Teacher Training Colleges and the **establishment of Highest Schools integrated with the Universities**" (1) the second group gave some kind of different support. It suggested as a solution the creation of "Highest Pedagogical Schools... autonomous, independent, equal... with the other University Schools but not integrated with the Universities" (2).

In this way there appeared two models as a solution to the problem: the first, the "integrated model" supported by teachers, students, progressive educationists and the Socialist Party and the second, the "upgraded model" suggested by one group of teachers' educators.

Apparently the "integrated model" supported by the ideologically opposite progressive educational group and the socialist party was impossible to be adopted by the "New Democracy" as a Government in power. On the contrary the "upgraded model" proposed by those who used to serve the system within the Government's politically and educationally acceptable framework, had more chance. Indeed, the first response of the Ministry of Education was on 11.10.1979, when it sent the first written confirmation to the Enosi Kathigiton Pedagogikon Academion ke Scholon Nipiagogon, that (3),

"... we inform you that we push forward a draft Bill on the 'establishment of Highest Pedagogical Institution' and we have taken your views into account".

At first glance, this proposal of upgrading the already existing Teacher Training Colleges to a Highest Institution of University rank was a desirable solution for part of the

staffing of these colleges, for the government agency which in fact would continue to have the ultimate responsibility for the new establishment and finally for the majority of university personnel who it seemed would never be prepared to break their traditional network of relationships.

But teachers' demand for scientific professional preparation raised the issue of "integration" with universities and not "upgrading" the old colleges to highest level.

In this sense,

"The interest of the conservative group was restricted to transfer continuously the satisfaction of our demand raising fears for 'the fall of university' (Professor Moutsopoulos, University of Athens, School of Philosophy) setting up committees which at one time proposed the upgrading of Teacher Training Colleges with three years course of study and at another time, the establishment of an Institution... far away from the University Centres" (4).

Inevitably, reactions to the governmental plans came from the major pressure groups. Students' abstentions in all colleges of the country on 26 February 1980 lasted 24 days and had consequences at the end of the school year. During this period, there were two events: (a) on 9.3.1980, the Ministry of Education confirmed for the second time, that it was planning the establishment of a "Highest Educational Institution",

"With the draft Bill which has already been drawn up, the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers and teachers of domestic economy will be undertaken by Highest Educational Institutions, by four years of study, which will function in accordance with Article 16 of the Greek Constitution, with administrative and financial autonomy..."(5)

and asked for proposals from the educationally relevant groups to be discussed before the final draft Bill was presented to the parliamentary committee.

Despite this confirmation, students did not return to their studies in Teacher Training Colleges and the Ministry of

Education was compelled to send another confirmation (6).

"... The Government have decided to entrust teachers' education to Higher Pedagogical Institutions...

The question of integration or not of the new Institutions with the existing universities will be discussed with the relevant groups..."

- (b) On 9.3.1980, pre-primary and primary teachers union organised the first Panhellenic Scientific Congress in Athens with the theme, "The Teacher Training Colleges" with participants representing members of all political parties, Union of Secondary School Teachers, Ministry of Education and religious, local authorities, students and members of other educationally relevant groups. In the end there was general agreement that,
- (i) the preparation courses in colleges were inadequate for modern problems in terms of teaching methods, content and relevant knowledge.
  - (ii) The colleges did not contribute to pedagogical research in the educational field and
  - (iii) the draft Bill proposed by the Ministry of Education on the establishment of Highest Pedagogical Institution, "gives the impression of a Higher Presidential or Ministerial establishment and not a University Institution.." (7)

The Congress recommended that the only possible solution for the pedagogical, scientific, political and social development of the country was the creation of University Pedagogical Departments of Education. This view was supported by progressive university professors of education who stressed the importance of an "integrated" model for the development of the general education and the qualitative and quantitative consequences in the field of scientific confrontation of various psycho-pedagogical issues (8).

In this sense the offered solution of University Pedagogical Departments of Education had been characterised as "the most realistic and easiest action from a scientific, administrative and financial point of view" (9).

In the meantime, a third model appeared as a solution to the problem of preparation of teachers for young children, proposed by a team of three regular professors of the Department of Psycho-pedagogical Studies, School of Philosophy, University of Athens (10). They claimed that,

"The proposal was based on their own worked out "model" which has been adjusted to the present general conditions in accordance with the international practice".

The most important features of this model were: (11)

- (i) The establishment of a Pedagogical School in those universities that had already well established professional schools for secondary school teachers. The school should have two departments, clearly, academic: Pedagogical and Psychological.
- (ii) The existing Teacher Training Colleges would be integrated with the new Pedagogical School of the peripheral University, as laboratories where only the student teachers for pre-primary and primary education would attend for special courses for their professional education and practical training.
- (iii) Finally, the whole course of study was four years, two in the local Teacher Training College and two in the Pedagogical School of the University.

The professors claimed that the benefits of the model's use were many:

- (a) it contributes to the "treatment of the Pedagogical



- Science" and to the preparation of all teaching personnel in general education at the university level;
- (b) it helps the integration of teacher education programmes with universities;
  - (c) it makes fully worthy the existing staff of Teacher Training Colleges and finally,
  - (c) the use of local teacher training colleges will help all teacher education programmes to maintain their particular idiosyncrasy and simultaneously "not to disturb the existing university order" (12).

Indeed, the model gives primarily the impression of an effort to build up the foundations of close relationships between the traditional Greek University and Teacher Training Colleges. A closer look however reveals that in fact the Greek Universities were unwilling to change their traditional attitudes towards the nature of Pedagogical Science as well as the duality of the teaching profession with its undesirable consequences for Greek society.

The above view is justified from the fact that, according to the proposed model the "treatment of Pedagogical Science" could succeed through the study of subjects in general education within the university sector, while the other professional elements and students' practical training could be taught in Teacher Training Colleges, as usual. But in Chapter IV we have shown that this theoretical view of pedagogy which had been developed in the Greek educational context, used to be directed by traditional beliefs and political attitude and in many cases to inhibit change.

We also have shown that such "treatment of pedagogical

science" was exactly what pre-primary and primary school teachers wanted to change, since the programme of studies in teacher training colleges were dominated by general academic subjects. Basically the proposed model suggested partly an expansion of the Department of Psycho-pedagogical Studies in University Schools of Philosophy in quantitative terms - by accepting more students for their first two years of studies together with the studies of secondary school teachers - and not in qualitative terms - by offering a new kind of knowledge for the future of pre-primary and primary school teachers.

Besides, in our view, the study of subjects of general education in university and the provision of other professional subjects and teaching practice in the colleges, offered by the proposed model, only for the teachers for young children, would enlarge the big dichotomy of the teaching profession rather than decrease it.

Thus, in the end, just one year before the elections, the right-wing government was faced with two kinds of policy-solutions to the problem of teacher education: a conservative and a radical one.

Firstly, under the heading "conservative solution" we put these models which postulated that development of teacher education was possible if the quality of the system and the inadequate human and economic resources were improved, without any radical changes in the educational system. Such models could be considered,

- (a) the establishment of the Highest Pedagogical Institution, proposed by the government itself and supported publicly by the right-wing party as well as by the Professors' Union of Teacher Training Colleges and

- (b) the establishment of Pedagogical Schools within the Universities for the study of academic subjects and the maintenance of the old colleges for the professional study and practical training.

Considering the professional requirements - in Lieberman's terms - both models seem to be inadequate to provide a thorough professional education similar to that of the university.

Secondly, under the heading "radical" solution we put that model which indeed needed radical structural changes not only in the educational system, but also in the cultural, political, economic and social ones. This was the "integrated" model consisting of University Pedagogical Departments, proposed by the Socialist Party and supported by students' organisations, teachers' unions, Professors' Association of Teacher Training Colleges (Syndesmos Kathegeton Pedagogikon Akademion Ptychiouchon Panepistimion emedapis) and some progressive university professors. In terms of professional requirements, it can be said that it was the only model which could offer a solution to the problem of teacher education.

Despite the government's final decision to choose the conservative solution it **continued to hesitate** to push forwards the draft Bill. The issue became more acute in October, 20, 21, 1980 when pre-primary and primary school teachers struck and their union (DOE) declared that,

"If the Ministry of Education will continue to follow the same negative attitude then with mathematical exactness the primary and pre-primary education is going to meet the greatest stirring time than ever"(13).

Within the same month, the Ministry of Education organised a special conference with the theme, "The Integration of the

Highest Pedagogical Schools with the Universities" and invited the Heads of all Greek Universities, the Deans of the University Philosophical Schools, the General Directors of Teacher Training Colleges and Teachers' Union (DOE). The latter refused to participate and declared that it would take part only in a conference which was going to discuss the organisation and functions of University Pedagogical Departments. Despite the above mentioned behaviour which was characterised as a "high-handed denial of scientific discussion" (14), the rest of the participants agreed that Teacher Training Colleges should be raised to the highest level of educational institutions.

At the end they decided that policy solution should be the choice between, (15)

- (i) The establishment of Highest Pedagogical Institution, which should be an independent Pedagogical University, only for the education of pre-primary, primary teachers and teachers for children with special needs and
- (ii) the adoption of the consecutive model proposed by the team of professors of Philosophical School of the University of Athens.

Among the participants, the Deans of University Philosophical Schools claimed that the Highest Pedagogical Institution should not be integrated with the universities. The Head of the University of Athens and the majority of the Directors of the Teacher Training Colleges insisted upon the establishment of an independent Pedagogical University.

Finally, the professors of the Pedagogical Faculty, School of Philosophy, University of Athens, supported the model they had already proposed, which strengthened the relationships between Colleges and Universities. Thus, despite all, these

groups were agreed that the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers should be improved in terms of years of study and content of programmes, but it seemed that they could not make an agreement in terms of the policy choice. However, the Ministry of Education continued its effort and the first conference was followed by a second one, in November 1980.

During the discussion, the Heads of the Universities and the Deans of the Philosophical School of the University of Athens excluded any possibility for Teacher Training Colleges to be integrated with the Universities for "technical reasons" (16) at the organisational level more than at the ideological level. The results of these two conferences were neither some kind of definite decisions nor the formulation of concrete suggestions. On the contrary, they showed that neither the Ministry of Education nor the Heads of Universities and the Deans had been prepared to accept the demand for integrated Pedagogical Schools with the Universities.

Thus the issue remained under consideration by a special committee, appointed by the Minister of Education, until the national political elections of 1981.

## 7.2 The Period After 1981: The Policy Change

On October 18, 1981, the Socialist Party (PASOK) was elected to form the new government by the majority of Greeks. Not only as an opposition party but also before the election, PASOK had declared its own policy in the educational field and since it took the power of government, the most immediate task was to modernise the academic system.

The policy change started with the Law 1268 "On the structure and functioning of Highest Educational Institutions".

A relevant aspect of this reform was the establishment of University Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers.

The general overview of the history of teacher education development and the state of university education, which have been analysed in Chapter II, **demonstrates** how difficult was the task of the reformers. In fact, the whole policy change had been characterised as, "a challenge to Greek society". It must demonstrate its "capacity to change"(17) or "breaking with urban tradition brings fresh academic hope"(18) and even "bloodless revolution in Greece's universities" (19). Moreover a Chief Education Officer of Suffolk wrote, (20)

"Can all this be accomplished at once - all our developments of 30 years compressed in to three? What is the result of changing examination system, curriculum, administration and teacher training in one fell swoop? The political will is strong, but can parents, pupils and teachers cope with change of this immensity at this pace?"

It is beyond our purpose to deal in detail with specific aspects of all these reforms. What is at the very heart of the whole process of decision-making in teacher education in Greece is the introduction of the new values, ideologies and the intellectual orientations of the Socialist Party, which had implications in the policy change. In the light of this view the developmental goal of education may be traced between the Marxist and the Western liberal-democratic ideology.

Written statements about the Socialist policy on education state ,

"For the first time, institutionally and in practical terms in everyday life, the social meaning and the value of work, the equality between the intellectual and the manual work and the necessity of creative combinations between theory and practice (21) are 'recognised and safeguarded' in our country." (22)

The point is that within this liberal socialist ideology the teacher education case is logically consistent with a psychological theory of child-development which suggests that,

"The years of preparation study teachers received should be reversely related with the age of the children they teach - for younger children they must be given more time for scientific preparation" (Piaget) (23).

Undoubtedly this view represented an important change from traditional thinking and needed a radical approach for change.

And the question is "how this radical approach found expression in the policy processes?"

### 7.3 Policy Formulation and Adoption - Debates in the Parliament on the Reform

Examining how educational policy on teacher education and, generally speaking, on Higher Education, was formulated and how decisions were reached in order to bring change in universities, the procedures certainly do not display any characteristic similar to those in other democratic countries, such as the United States of America and Great Britain.

The fact that the legislative plan was introduced in to the Parliament and became Law 1268/82 within eight months after the Socialist Party was elected, proves in itself that there was not time for any preparatory work of systematic research or study which could inform policy decisions.

In reference to the particular issue of "integration" of teacher education in universities, the main characteristics were,

- (i) there was not any extensive pedagogical and socioeconomic research done about the broad educational issues and especially in relation to the problem of "integration"

of teacher training colleges.

- (ii) Again there was not any particular study about the current and future needs of the Greek state in teaching personnel from qualitative and quantitative point of view.
- (iii) Not a meaningful analysis of the financial presumptions and statistical predictions in the light of international evidence.
- (iv) Not even the planning of teaching personnel for the new Pedagogical University Departments and the material requirements (buildings, etc.).

The first characteristic of the policy formulation was the procedure which was followed in the preparation and introduction of the law plan in to the Parliamentary Committee.

"It was... entirely strange and contrary to the promises of the Government of the PASOK. Neither hearing, nor dialogue or exchange of ideas with the university agents... The Law was drawn up behind closed doors, in front of which various signals of agents and demands were crushed in to... Unfortunately, this Law does not inspire confidence and even I am afraid that it will bring new suffering in the future" (24).

Indeed the legislative plan on the structure and organisation of highest education had been prepared without democratic procedures such as governmental official discussions on the features of the reform in the press, on television or at special round-table discussions or the exchange of ideas and opinions, positive or negative, through effective dialogues.

The draft Bill was introduced unexpectedly in to the Parliament, on 4th June 1982, by the Parliamentary Committee of National Education and Religion and on 16th June 1982, the Government asked the Parliament to discuss the Law Plan as a matter of urgency.



This procedure explains,

- (i) why the inputs by other interest groups through the policy making process was very limited and
- (ii) why the views and reactions of the groups and individuals who opposed the Bill manifested themselves in a relatively short time before the final voting.

The second characteristic relates the composition and the role of the committee responsible for the draft Bill.

During the preparation period of the Law Plan the composition and the whole work of the special committee which was set up was kept secret from the public.

A spokesman of the New Democracy expressed his views during the debates in the Parliament as follows,

"The composition of the Committee that prepared this draft Bill was kept secret as a confidential national secret. And when the members of the Committee became known to the public, after the Bill had been introduced in to the Parliament, everybody was surprised by the fact that there were no regular university professors" (25).

According to the report of the draft Bill the contributors were the Prime Minister, A. Papandreou, who gave the general principles and ideas, the Under-Secretary, Mr. Lianis and the General Secretary of the Ministry of Education, Mr. Rokos - Professors, the University Scholars Mr. Panousis, Mr. Venizelos, Mr. Zoras and Mr. Papafilipou, two Professors of the Law Mr. Manesis and Mr. Tsatsos in collaboration with Mr. D. Kladis, President of the Central Committee of the University Scientific Teaching Personnel and Mr. T. Papageorgiou, Representative of the National Union of University Students.

Among the above contributors some were politicians, other educationists and some other officials.

According to B. Kontogianopoulos (26),

"The common denominator of all these persons was that they were actual members of the PASOK ... thus the Law Plan has exclusively only one way political provenence."

Apparently the political and not academic considerations weighed heavily on the appointment of its members and clearly this had direct implications in the committee's role: to provide a draft Bill within the political framework of the Socialist Party.

The draft Bill was discussed by the Parliament during the summer time in five meetings, on 16th, 17th, 21st, 24th and 28th of June, 1982.

It did not pass easily because the reactions were strong inside and outside Parliament. The main principles of the draft Bill which have been attacked by the opposition were,

- (i) the abolition of the Chair system in universities, and the introduction of sections, as basic academic units;
- (ii) the establishment of a single body responsible for the decision-making and the abolition of the traditional hierarchy and
- (iii) the equal participation of teaching staff and students in the life of Highest Educational Institutions.

In particular, the third provision has been attacked as being unconstitutional: the removal of power from ordinary professors and the participation of lecturers and administrative employee representatives and students in the election of the Rectoral authorities was against the traditional autonomy and university independence. This struggle for power is central to the analysis of power in universities in Chapter VI.

The relevant article of the draft Bill with the intro-

duction of University Pedagogical Departments was discussed in the Parliament on the fifth day, 28th June 1982.

The Minister of Education, in his speech, remarked, (27)

"With this modification the Government substantially fulfils a dream of the teaching world and a necessity of our time.

We establish Departments of Pedagogical Science within the Universities....

The matter is not simple. It is difficult and it will require many years' effort until its integration. But today, with this modification of the draft Bill we ask from the Parliament to give us the authority by the Law to start a task, which, undoubtedly will promote the Pedagogical Science and the education of teachers which is necessary today on the basis of the present day thinking, to offer a better pedeia to the children of Greece."

The spokesman of the K.K.E. expressed his views as follows, (28)

"Undoubtedly it is positive the establishment of University Pedagogical Departments in our country. For us it is a matter of enormous meaning and we are surprised at the attitude of the Government to solve the matter with the procedure of Presidential Decree and not with a Law itself.

We believe that the Government must introduce a Bill in Parliament which will specialise entirely on this modification. A Bill which will be drawn up by all the interest groups and will regulate the main problems which will be created with the Pedagogical Departments.....

In our opinion, the way in which the Government chooses to solve such a serious problem will create future serious problems."

The Independent Deputy, Mr. P. Kanellopoulos (29)

(ex-President of the New Democracy) in his speech, expressed his doubts with the way the problems of teacher preparation were going to be solved,

"Despite my wish, and although I share the general demand of the teaching world, I must tell you that it is somewhat difficult to consider that the universities should graduate so many teachers as Teacher Training Colleges used to.... with the concept of pedagogos ...

Thus, despite the fact that I share this necessity I cannot greet the solution of the problem because it is not solved with this arrangement. Simply, it is only presented."

A spokesman of the New Democracy said, (30)

"We agree with the principle of this regulation, but we cannot agree with the way such a serious problem is attempted to be solved....

These are matters which need further consideration and they should have been prepared in a draft Bill with concrete suggestions and concrete recommendations for discussion, in order to be improved and criticised, as happens in all draft Bills..."

Another deputy of the New Democracy claimed that,

"The Government should be bound with the task of keeping the functioning of Teacher Training Colleges in the cities where there are no university centres as branches of the University Pedagogical Departments." (31)

The reaction of the Minister of Education to the above critics was as follows, (32)

"We believe that with this arrangement we start the history of 'integration', the establishment of University Pedagogical Departments, which are called to replace today's Teacher Training Colleges.

We believe that it is not a simple story, even a story of political wish but something more vital...

I have not yet understood if the New Democracy and its spokesmen have realised what exactly this arrangement means....

Perhaps the issue finds you reluctant or unprepared, despite the fact that for many years it has been discussed repeatedly...

What somebody could observe in the remarks of the New Democracy, which in real terms avoids or at least is unwilling to accept the proposed changes, is that it tries to invent pretexts, and excuses to cover its substantial refusal for the suggestion of the Government for which of course it is very proud."

Since the introduction of the draft Bill in the Parliament and during the Parliamentary debates, the reactions of many educational interest groups were impressive.

The leader (33) of the New Democracy, asked for the Government to withdraw immediately the draft Bill and to form an independent political Committee which will prepare a new draft Bill with the agreement of all political parties and claimed that

the Committee responsible for the Law Plan had reached the boundaries of the absurd.

He also stated that the new Law would abolish the academic freedom in the universities and would seriously wound the Sciences (34).

Finally, he declared that the New Democracy would abolish this Law when it came in to power (35). Also the ex-leader of the New Democracy, Mr. G. Rallis (36) anticipated many calamities if the Law were applied.

Besides the Government was attacked by the KKE that imitates the "modernisation" of American universities (37). The party also announced that the draft Bill does not satisfy some basic principles of democratisation and it cannot ensure the pathway for the establishment of a democratic educational renaissance in our country (38). For this reason, "the KKE cannot vote upon the draft Bill and will continue to fight for the implementation of a policy which will be a strong basis for a satisfactory way out of today's Highest Education crisis"(39).

Also, the President (40) of the political party Koma Demokratikou Socialismou (KO-ΔH-ΣΟ) (Party of Democratic Socialism) stressed that the draft Bill needed to be extensively modified.

The Heads of ten Highest Institutions of the country announced to the public that the draft Bill (41),

- (i) does not lead the Highest education in to the renaissance.
- (ii) It creates an atmosphere of general uncertainty, it is not clear and it will create confusion.

(iii) It establishes as a super agent The Higher Council of Letters and Sciences (ΕΑΤΕ) which will act as a mechanism of supervision and intervention in the Highest Educational Institution.

(iv) It anticipates complicated procedures and

(v) Leads the Highest Institutions to the lower status.

The first form of University Professors' syndicalism He Enosis (The Unions), during a conference, criticised the Law Plan, and denounced it because it disturbs the university order. The announcement was signed by the President of the Administrative Unions of the University Professors of Athens, Thessaloniki, Ioannina, Thraki, Ethniko Metsovio Polytechnio, Phisikomathematikon Scholon and Ikonomikon. Also the Scientific University teaching personnel (ΕΔΠ) started a three-day strike in order to show their disagreement with the provisions of the Law (42).

The President of the Greek Democracy had a meeting with a committee composed of the representatives of the General Assembly of the Professors and University Lecturers of the University of Athens who expressed their dissatisfaction and their views on the draft Bill (43).

They characterised it as unacceptable and proposed the drawing up of a new draft Bill for the Highest Educational Institutions with the collaboration of the State and the elected University representatives (44).

The role of the Students' Union was also to react against it with the exception of the Socialist Youth Organisation (ΠΑΣΚ).

The National Union of University Students (ΕΦΕΕ) marched on the Parliament and expressed their views

during the Parliamentary debates through the representative of the New Democracy (45), as follows:

"This Law Plan has been drawn up without the contribution of the students and other democratic university agents. It has been introduced in the Parliament during the examination period when in fact the schools are not functioning, something that creates problems for the possibility of students being able to express their views...

The Government draft Bill does not create the necessary ways for the university crisis to be solved. It does not penetrate in deep changes which are indispensable for the university. Its main points are not in agreement with the basic positions of the democratic university agents.."

The reasons for these reactions were many. For the right-wing party and the majority of the community of university scholars it was not only the fact that the radical reform affected established and desirable conditions. It was also an innovation which was introduced by an ideologically opposite group. And the history of Greek education is full of evidence of the continuous struggle between the traditional and the progressive groups in education.

Thus everybody could expect naturally such a negative reaction from these groups. Despite these reactions the draft Bill was voted upon and became Law due to the political strength of the PASOK Government in the Parliament.

The role of the Elementary Teachers' Union (DOE) was very creative, despite the fact that in many reform cases teachers demonstrate a rather reactive role, their justification being that the question of change affected not only their professional status in educational matters but also in financial terms, since their salary is directly related to the years of study.

We show that they supported the whole set of ideological values upon which the reform was based not only during the decision-making process but also before the election, in the genesis of the policy.

For those who supported the reform it was an important comprehensive and fundamental change toward modernisation and democratisation of Greek universities. The Law was in force since 16.7.1982, but its first regulations had been put into effect during the academic year of 1983. During this year the main focus was on the organisational aspects of the new system while the second academic year was devoted to the internal functioning of the universities and the implementation of the new programmes of study.

Certainly the whole reform movement required time to obtain substantial results not only in terms of implementation of the new measures but also in terms of a noticeable rise in academic standards. But while in theory all these seemed very simple, in practice the picture was not very clear.

The universities became highly politicised and the "political ulterior motive replaced any democratic procedure in the university life.... Many of the new programmes of studies thrust aside the scientific criteria of the time and are formed on the basis of the personal aspirations ... of the micro political "initiation"..

In the establishment of sections **subjects** with different character are **often united without related knowledge**, because of the peculiar political alliance formed by the teaching personnel...(46) ." In this sense, .."the university place.. has been the subject of micro politics with the result instead of planning a policy for scientific research very often we make policy with it" (47).

But what about the University Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers? Although the Law 1268/82, Article 46 confirmed their establish-



ment, paragraph 2 stated that the starting year of their actual functioning was going to be defined by the Minister of Education himself through a Presidential Decree.

But at the beginning of the academic year 1983-84 the prevailing uncertainty in the universities and the various "fronts" which had to face the Minister of Education in the educational field created an area of daily changing interventions which it seemed could not stand the solution of "integration" for the education of teachers for young children (48). Despite it and under the problematic conditions of Highest Educational Institutions, due to the critical period of change, on March 1st, 1983, the then Ministry of Education announced, (49).

"The functioning of new University Pedagogical Departments for the preparation of pre-primary and primary school teachers will start from the academic year 1984-85."

#### 7.4 The Implementation of the New Policy for the Education of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers - Debates after the Reform

On 3rd September 1983, a few months following the announcement of the Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education, the Government published the No. 320 Presidential Decree "On the Organisation and Function of the Pedagogical Departments in the Highest Educational Institutions". During the period of this announcement and the actual functioning of University Pedagogical Departments (almost one year) there were the following events:

- (1) A special committee was appointed by the Minister of Education to study the programme of studies for the new departments and to provide a general framework.
- Members of the Committee were (50),
- three regular professors of the University of Thessaloniki
  - one regular professor of the University of Ioannina

- one professor of Pedagogical Academy of Ioannina
- one lecturer of the University of Patras
- one representative of pre-primary and primary teachers' union
- one specialised counsellor of the Ministry of Education and
- one official of the Ministry of Education.

The composition of the committee showed that on the one side professional considerations weighed heavily in the appointment and on the other side the government was willing to provide a real professional preparation course for the teachers for young children. Indeed, the committee proposed a general comprehensive schedule, analysed in Chapter IV about the content of programmes in Pedagogical Departments of Education. An interesting characteristic aspect related to the effectiveness of the implementation of the policy process was that governmental officials discussed the critical issues of content and material equipment in the press and at special round-table discussion.

(2) On 23-25 September 1983, the Pedagogical Society of Greece organised the First International Pedagogical Conference on the subject of "Education and In-service Education of Teachers". During the conference the Ministry of Education stressed that the conclusions of the conference will help not only the construction of programmes of studies for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers but also for the preparation of secondary school teachers, since the existing organisation of their studies does not contribute to the production of the teacher who can relate production to the scientific knowledge and the final aims of education (51).

The participants recommended among the others that,

- (i) the organisation and the content of the teaching programme should reveal the modern dynamic concept about the role of the teacher not only in the teaching practice but also within the general needs of society.
- (ii) The content of studies should be consistent by academic professional subjects and teaching practice (30 per cent for each).
- (3) On 15th October 1983, the Union of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers organised a special round-table discussion in Athens on the subject, "Content of Studies - Teaching Personnel-Housing Problems". The discussion took place between the Head of the University of Thessaloniki, a regular professor of Pedagogy of University of Ioannina, a special counsellor of the Ministry of Education and three more educationists.

Among the conclusions were,

- (i) the content should be different from that of Colleges;
- (ii) the teaching personnel should belong to all ranks of the teaching scale;
- (iii) the pedagogical departments should be housed in the same place as the rest of university units;
- (iv) the teacher should be "pedagogos.... who is master of pedagogical science, the didactic and the subject which he is going to teach".

During the same month the Union at local level organised a second special round-table discussion in Crete on the subject, "The Pedagogical Departments".

The discussion took part between representatives of Teachers' Unions, a special counsellor of the Ministry of Education and professors of the Pedagogical Academy of Crete and of the University of Crete and Patras. It was in that

conference that the first reaction to the character of the Pedagogical Departments came from the Professor of History and the President of the Committee responsible for the organisation of Pedagogical Departments in the University of Crete (52).

He disputed the usefulness of all members of the teaching personnel originating from the science of education and expressed reserve about the possibility of all Pedagogical Departments which the Government intended to establish, actually functioning. He also showed a profound disagreement with the philosophical and ideological assumption of the new policy change.

(4) Finally, in November 1983, the Union of Pre-primary and Primary School Teachers proposed a well defined model to the Ministry of Education on the basis of the results of all the above conferences, round-table discussions, the conclusions of the First Panhellenic Educational Conference and various views which had been expressed in the Union's General Assemblies during the last eight years.

It had the title, "How do we want the Pedagogical Department to be like", in relation to the content issues, the composition of the teaching personnel and the location of these departments?"

In summary, the model revealed the following principles, (53)

- (i) the teacher should be scientifically educated in matters of pedagogy with a deep knowledge of "what", "how" and "to whom".
- (ii) The graduates should be able to teach at the first level of secondary education. In so doing, the

teaching profession eventually will move towards unification.

- (iii) The teaching personnel should originate from the Science of Education. Any other modification is possible to lead the Pedagogical Department in to a new type of Teacher Training College with four years of study.
- (iv) The content should have the three ingredients of the academic, professional study and teaching practice in equally devoted time to each one.
- (v) The new departments should be with the other University units, thus giving the opportunity to students to participate in university life.

However, regardless of the model adopted, the enhanced principles indicated much progress toward the fundamental issues in teacher education and an important professional concern of teachers about their formal training.

Besides, according to the President of the Union, who indicated an important ideological concern since,

"Within our suggestions, as a Union, we tied up the scientific with the syndicalistic political word because we believe that these matters... are first of all ideological and political." (54)

For this reason, the proposed model had been criticised as a "political choice" (55) and not really a professional design.

- (5) During this period the Ministry of Education announced the approval of the first 10 members who will constitute the first teaching personnel of each department.

At the beginning the Union insisted that the first 7 members of the teaching staff of the Pedagogical Departments should originate from the science of education.

But the Minister of Education decided that (56) ,

"In case it is impossible to cover the first seven places of the teaching staff with scholars having post-graduate studies in the science of education, then he will proclaim the three of them for scholars of other specialised subjects, such as Mathematics, Philosophy, etc."

And later,

"The Ministry of Education... does not accept the unanimous decision of the organisation for the composition of the teaching personnel only from the science of education" (57).

Finally,

"The Ministry of Education decided that three of the seven members of the teaching personnel should originate from the specialities of Theology, Philosophy and Mathematics" (58).

Precisely, the Ministry of Education decided the following composition for the first seven members of the teaching staff in the University Pedagogical Departments:

- three scholars originating from the science of education;
- one scholar from the science of psychology;
- one scholar from the science of physics-mathematics;
- one scholar from the science of philosophy;
- one scholar from the science of theology.

In this case the Teachers' Union reactive role as a critic was weak because it defended the whole theme as "our reaction to the problem of the composition of the teaching personnel... was the result of political sensitivity (59)... which was arranged with the announcement of the Ministry of Education (60)" Before we place this decision in theoretical and professional perspective, it would be desirable to emphasise two points. First, the decision was taken after "pressures" and suggestions from "groups", "unions", "associations" (61),

without university involvement. These groups seemed to react in the main in isolation from the national community even the community of the majority of university scholars. Indeed, it has been accepted,

"It is true that the meaning of Institutionalisation and functioning of pedagogical departments from the academic year 1984-85 was very little known to the public" (62).

Furthermore, a scholar of academic subjects, in the press, raised an exasperated voice, (63)

"It is not certain that all these people who are interested from professional and scientific point of view have realised the size and the meaning of the change: except the 'integration' issue which was relevant with the economic interest at the syndicalistic level, we have to do with the institutionalisation of a new mechanism of teachers' production, which very soon will influence the study and the character of the pre-primary and primary education. On the contrary, it is certain that.. other 'interested' people, a whole population, are ignorant of what is happening and is going to happen."

The second characteristic of the decision-making reflects the basic feature of a political system with centralised administrative control where there is not a strong political opposition. It also reflects an indirect state interference in university matters which indicates an effort to impose a certain character in the designing of teacher preparation programmes.

However in trying to interpret the issue within the conceptual framework of professionalisation, it can be argued that to a large extent, it fits very well in to the argument for professional teaching personnel because,

- (a) according to the governmental decision about the composition of the first teaching staff in Pedagogical departments, the percentage of 57 per cent seems to

belong to the educationists.

- (b) Moreover the issue goes further, because 57 per cent of the time devoted to the programme of studies is **concerned with the educational knowledge.**
- (c) Also it is closely relevant to the fundamental concept of power structure of the teacher education and consequently of the pre-primary and primary school system.

The decision offers more power to the professors of education to formulate and adopt policy-decisions, during the General Assembly of the Department, in serious matters, such as the employment of new teaching staff, methods of teaching practice, whether or not students have to be taught certain subjects and even who is going to teach these subjects.

The fact that the power structure of the Greek educational system used always to be consistent with the professional, economic and socio-political interests of the university academic groups - especially those belonging to the Philosophical School of Athens - suggests that the new structure of the teacher education system, naturally, is likely to stimulate their interest and willingness for the new departments to rely on their power.

Undoubtedly, the issue has much to do not only with control for the content of teacher education but also for control of all education at the first level.

Some idea of the application of their power may be obtained from the programme of studies of secondary teacher education in Greece, where the predominant element is the academic disciplines that correspond to the academic subjects in the curriculum of secondary education and the pedagogical professional component <sup>is</sup> almost non-existent. In some cases where the latter



was offered, emphasis was placed more on theoretical studies than on practical exercises. Kazamias gives an explanation for this approach as, (64),

"One explanation of this policy is that in Greece the view continues to persist that secondary school teachers must be, first and foremost, scholars in their own discipline. As future teachers, they must also be 'educators' or 'pedagogues', but this can easily be accomplished through practical experience in the school... In the pedagogical professional part of the programme... This approach is perhaps based on the assumption or belief that theory and practice constitute two separate entities... From such a perspective, theoretical pedagogical education connotes familiarity with a codified system of scientific knowledge, while practice denotes a cluster of skills. Pure scientific knowledge is acquired through systematic instruction in the university; professional skills, on the other hand, either flow naturally from theoretical knowledge or are required incidentally and experientially."

This direct influence of the universities on the content of secondary teacher educational control of the subject matter of secondary education has recently been questioned and despite the numerous attempts for reform there has been no concrete change.

But what about the content of pre-primary and primary teacher education?

It has been evident in the foregoing discussion that in general, university academics, while they reacted very negatively in any policy-solution "integrated" with universities before the election period, **had later** seemed to be rather indifferent **to** the specific article of the new Law on the establishment of Pedagogical Departments.

Has this attitude of indifference carried on over the implementation of the relevant Presidential Decree or not?

It is assumed that if it has, the professors of education, according to the governmental decision, probably will be responsible for the content of the new departments thus

contributing to the development of the teaching profession.

On the other side, if it has not, then the content of teacher education could possibly be turned into an arena of political debate, which could in the future retard professionalisation.

#### 7.4.1 The Arena of Debate: Control and Content of Teacher Education

Holmes argues that (65),

"Where they have expanded to incorporate training for primary and academic secondary school teachers, i.e. for virtually all teachers, conflict between the so-called 'academics' and the 'professors of education' over the content of teacher education is likely to develop... In the event, debates turn on what should be the balance in teacher education between general education, subject matter, professional courses and teaching practice."

Indeed, just in the beginning of policy-implementation, a heated controversy on the issue had appeared in the press, concerning the different emphases between the "what" and the "how" or between the "methodology" and "subject matter" in the preparation courses for pre-primary and primary school teachers. Unfortunately, the experience of other countries (U.S.A.) suggests that this is a "long-standing feud" which probably will continue for a long time.

Before reference to the debate, it is necessary to mention that it is misleading to regard "academic professors" or "professors of education" as a homogeneous group of any one of the two issues, because it is possible to exist with disagreement within, as well as between, these educational groups. Hence the views which are sometimes expressed by one or the other group should never be regarded as the views of everyone within that group.

The controversy over the issue stemmed from the different interpretation of the Law.

According to the provision of the Law 1268/82 the Pedagogical Departments, as well as the rest of the university departments, "consist of the basic functioning academic unit and covers the subject of one science" (66) thus they should cover the subject of pedagogical science. This provision within the Greek context could be interpreted in two different ways depending on different educational and ideological bases.

At the educational level we have already stated that the science of pedagogy has been developed in an entirely theoretical form by the pedagogical sections of Schools of Philosophy in many universities giving primarily importance to the historico-philological elements.

Such a view, influenced by the Greek classical traditions, used to dominate the Greek education in a way that inhibits not only change in the character of pedagogical science, but also further development of modern pedagogy.

In this sense, the subject of pedagogical science has the meaning of pure knowledge while the knowledge of other elements of education and practical experience is "regarded as complementary to the scientific knowledge of the educator" (67).

On this basis the science of pedagogy in the pedagogical departments should have a similar direction and consequently those who have the major "say" in the construction of programmes of studies should originate from the sciences of pure academic subjects. At the ideological level we have shown that this group of people used to be expressed through the ideology of the right-wing political party which is in favour of the Greek tradition and usually against any radical changes.

Finally, in regard to the two opposite Greek educational groups, these people naturally belong to the traditional conservative group of educators. Having in mind, that some members of this group belong to the rank of university professors of academic subjects, some of whom, in turn have been called to contribute to the organisation of programmes of studies in the new Pedagogical Departments, we can inevitably expect at least some kind of internal conflict with the actual requirements of the Government in the implementation of the Law.

Indeed, a university scholar of academic subjects claimed, (68)

"The organisation of programme of studies consists of the basic functions and responsibilities of the Highest Educational Institutions, is an essential element of their autonomy, because the way future graduates are educated is closely related to the level of education and the possibility of national development. For this reason, the organisation of a programme of studies is an especially sensitive matter: everybody, including myself, who is dealing with the construction of a programme of studies for the Pedagogical Departments has a consciousness of the ideological struggle, in other words, we know that the content is a matter of critical political choice."

Contrary to the above group is the group of progressive educators who base the interpretation of the Law on an entirely different ideological and educational basis. At the ideological level the sources are to be found in the movement of Demotikismou (Chapter II) and in the struggle for radical changes on the side of the Greek liberal political parties.

At the educational level the progressive group of educators tend to develop the science of modern pedagogy on research evidence and theories of education giving primary importance to the child and the learning situation rather than the subject to be learned.

Their views, expressed in the Conference and the special round-table discussions before the implementation of the reform, support that this modern pedagogy will be developed in the new University Pedagogical Departments of Education if the majority of the teaching personnel **originates** from the science of education. Thus, those who must have the major "say" in the construction of the programme of studies should be the professors of education. Certainly the position of the progressive group has been strengthened with the provisions of the government in terms of the composition of the first teaching personnel in the new departments.

Indeed, professors of education claimed that they are, among others, evidence of a "genuine political **choice**" (69) which,

- "(a) Increases the possibility of indigenous research development of the Sciences of Education in relation to the education of teachers. Everybody who is interested in the development of the country.. should be glad about it...
- (b) Recognises.. the need of each person to be educated to meet.. in the face of the teacher.. the pedagogue..
- (c) Recognises the particular importance of education for young children.

This type of pedagogue.. has to be formed in the Pedagogical Department, using like tools, elements from other relevant sciences and in particular, from the science of education. The latter are emphasised more.. because of the development of the belief in their dynamics.. and will give the scientific identity of pedagogues.

within this dimension, we believe that the pedagogical thought and the State see the Pedagogical departments.. there are risks in the interpretation of the Law's spirit and the State's announcements.. (70)"

But in fact this "genuine political choice" was inconsistent with the university autonomy where the recruitment of the teaching staff and the organisation of the programme of studies constitute

the corner-stones of this autonomy. Because this governmental interference has been accepted with pleasure by some professors of education- as the above statement shows - they have been attacked for a willingness for "governmental control on the programmes of study" (71) by other professors of academic subjects,

"It is regretful... because members of the University community agree with the construction and the choice of teaching personnel in the Pedagogical Departments in places outside the University... without even its opinion" (72)

This point reflects the heated issue of content control in the new Pedagogical Departments of Education which eventually will turn on the question of balance between "what" and "how".

The preceding discussion attempted to show that there are two groups interested in the university control of teacher education content: the traditional and the progressive educational groups. These groups are represented in the university field with the professors of academic subjects and professors of education and have different ideological and educational bases. Applying their views on the nature of content of studies in the Pedagogical Departments of Education the academic argument is that,

"The University must produce teachers with a thorough theoretical and practical background but first of all it must educate them with the methodology of critical research of knowledge. It is the only way to have tomorrow the teacher-social factor and the school that exists with the social problems." (73)

Furthermore, 'teachers being educated in "how" they will teach, not knowing in depth "what" they will teach, the university is invalid as it is and contributes to the tomorrow's intellectual sterility. A university education with emphasis on "how" and with relevant or entirely refusal of "what" shapes the technocrat teacher who keeps waiting for knowledge

to apply the "how" in fact it is about an education which refutes the role of teacher, because it turns him into an executant of recipes. In this way we are going to establish an idea within a place, which only this is not permitted to accept."(74)

On the other hand, the above views have been explained by the Professors of Education as a different interpretation of the Law because the traditional knowledge of academic disciplines gives the first place in a new knowledge: psychopedagogics, which in turn could be seen as "what", within the scheme of programme of studies in Pedagogical Departments (75).

Furthermore, they argue, that,

"We believe that.. the knowledge of the man.., the knowledge of the mechanism and processes of learning as factors that influence their realisation expressed.. as 'what' and not 'how'. We think that all these who know and accept the modern trends of psychopedagogical research can appreciate that the weightened centre is not in teaching, but learning... which is the result of the dynamic relationship between the .. student and the learning situation... Hence, the teacher should be theoretically and practically ready not only to 'teach' but to 'help' the learning process as well as the general development of the student; in other words to be able to attract the pupil toward the knowledge and to help him to learn. That is why many researches suggest that the teacher should not only know the basic and essential subjects he is going to teach, but also the pupil himself as a psychological and social being" (76).

The role of the teachers' union in general supported the educational argument which seems to have common points with Lieberman's argument,

"We must bear in mind that the teachers' job is to apply the educational sciences, but it is the function of social scientists, not teachers to develop the educational sciences."(77)

The Union defined the controversy between the "how" and "what" as an "artificial" out of date problem and claimed that,

"the prevailing idea is that the 'how' is the principal element, among others, of the pedagogical practice in the basic school. Hence the modern pedagogical demand is that 'the school should teach the child to learn and... not to fill his head with 'not needed' knowledge.'" (78).

Additionally, it stressed that,

"This 'how' which includes ... the 'what' and 'why'... has never been offered to the Greek teacher in the Teacher Training Colleges" (79).

Similar views have been expressed by other educational groups through the press (80),

"The problem which put... the supporters of 'what' is that the subject of Pedagogics is the 'how'. Such boundaries in the subject of Pedagogics entails its questioning as a science and its demolition in to a sterile didactical-methodology (technocratic concept). The fact that didactic-methodology consists of part of the subject of pedagogics is not questioned. But its wider subject is the 'education' and 'agogy' or better... the socialisation of the human being... under certain social, economic, political and cultural circumstances."

However, **before** these developments a professor of academic subjects raised a very important question..(81),

"Has the University the right to show indifference in front of such a 'rape' of studies?"

A full analysis of the issue brings about some specific points which deserve a thoughtful consideration. First, it has been suggested in the earlier pages that at the heart of the controversy is the specific **desire** for power between the so-called "academics" and "professors of education".

What constitutes the exercise of power by the two groups of scholars has direct influence,

- (i) on the programme of preparation studies for pre-primary and primary school teachers and
- (ii) on the type of education they will offer at the primary and pre-primary level.

In the light of historical evidence which has been analysed earlier, this type of basic education used to be a general reproductive mechanism of social and political stability desirable for all conservative groups, including the majority of



academic scholars in University Philosophical Schools.

The new policy of teacher education brought two radical changes in the educational field with long term effects:

- (i) it was "integrated" with universities and,
- (ii) the political attitude strengthened the power of educationists rather than that of academics over the educational programmes of study.

Furthermore, it showed a deeper concern: that the maintenance of the traditional basic patterns of social organisations have been broken down and a new pattern is likely to be developed.

Again, there **is** some evidence that a new concept of a powerful teaching profession is likely to **evolve**. It is certain that if teachers begin to fulfil their professional responsibilities, evolutionary change will reach the second level of education, which used to be the 'realm' of academic professors of specialised subjects.

But have the latter been prepared for such a change in the traditional societal norms of Greek society?

If they have, then it is assumed that there is some change in their "internalised values" about "educated" man in society. Most theorists of social change "assert that the most difficult aspects of society to change are the mores, traditions, or internalised values of people" (82). Moreover the foregoing discussion supports the latter's views and demonstrates a "no-change" in their pattern of mental states.

The fact that university teacher education has been accepted - necessarily - by the university community does not presuppose that it was consistent with all the individual professors' belief patterns.

Among them some could be innovators and in favour of

change (these usually belong to the progressive group), others may dislike the type of change and some others would always resist change (these belong to the traditional education group).

Evidently it is the logical inconsistency within the latter group which finds expression in a number of ways in society and leads to certain problems with ideological and sociological implications.

If so, then we can accept that the persistence of traditional behaviour patterns "which reflect deeply held sentiments or value"(83), of the academic group, is likely to base its attitudes and future reactions towards the operation of the new Pedagogical departments. Moreover, we can accept that since the historical evidence suggests that this group used to resist any change in the Greek educational system, then its traditional behaviour pattern over the operation of the new Pedagogical departments is more likely to be negative and ideologically opposed to their scientific identification.

The value of the identification of the ideologically opposed group to the policy implementation provides an understanding of its relative position against the ongoing debates.

Also, its presence should be regarded as the possible source of a serious ideological problem whose solution requires some readjustment of attitudes and outlook on the part of the academic group within the society. But this necessarily involves reconciliation, which for the time being seems impossible. On this basis, we assume that the apparent conflict between the two groups of the university community is likely to contribute to the appearance of less favourable results in teacher education in the future. These results will lead to confusion and

disagreement over the functions of education and will persist for a long time.

This will unfortunately have an opposite effect on the progress of professionalisation.

The experience of other countries (U.S.A.) suggests that similar controversies over the "academic" and "educational" arguments for the training of teachers had a considerable effect on professional teacher education as a whole.

The fact that all university scholars in Greece considered that some change was necessary in the old system of teacher education does not mean that some of them did not have anti-professional views concerning the requirements for teaching nor that all of them had the same views on the type of preparation.

A university scholar of academic subject claimed that (84),

"Four years of study to face the infant age are rather a lot" but since

"it has been decided to abolish the Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon and their replacement by the University Pedagogical Departments of four years of study... the increased total years of study in Philosophical Schools for secondary school teachers is imposed at least for one year"

Meanwhile the general agreement between the "professional" argument expressed by teachers' Union and the "educational" of the Professors of Education in Greece suggests that the type of teacher education model proposed by the Union shares the "educational" argument of "how" to form the basis of teachers' professional preparation. But this in turn is likely to give rise to another problem: educators receive more power than they ought to have in the determination of the broad purposes of basic education and in the control over the

basic professional matter of curriculum content. On the other hand, it may be seen as an indirect way through which the teaching profession is able ; to influence the course content, since we have shown in the analysis in Chapter VI, that only the university professors have the veto "power" in the type of content.

Although this weakens the position for the teaching profession it gives increased support for its development.

In this case, it is well to distinguish the level of the general agreement of both groups, Teachers' Union and Professors of Education, and to assess it.

Within the conceptual framework of the discussion about the genesis of the policy and its processes we noted very clearly the intense politicisation of education and the intense participation of both groups in the educational decision-making.

It was also apparent that political considerations received primary importance in their role and activities during the policy decision process. Clearly their suggestions were within the politically acceptable framework and tended to meet to a large extent the expectation of the government.

But this close relationship between teacher education change and politics involves a considerable source of uncertainty about the future and the successful or non functioning of the new departments. This is because the history of modern Greek education reveals a confused situation and uncertainty in every reform attempt, which finally leads to the "no-change" phenomenon.

If the policy change was based on a broad scientific pedagogical, educational and socio-economic research at national

level about the qualitative and quantitative needs of the Greek education and if there was an efficient policy planning in terms of the teaching personnel and the rest of the staff as well as the material and technical equipment, all necessary for the productive functioning of these departments, then both could provide scientific objective criteria which could be used as one kind of guarantee for successful implementation.

Our analysis showed that instead of such scientific objectives criteria, the policy change was based rather on logical arguments and ideological-political signals. But do such arguments only provide methodological preparation, and detailed study of all circumstances and a long term systematic programme? Certainly not.

On the contrary, they develop a stronger ideological and political opposition which indubitably does not presuppose contribution to the successful policy implementation.

The discussion may explain why, (85)

"The success of every educational reform in Greece is doubtful, that does not mean pessimism, if there is not at least a minimum agreement and a good sense of political parties... all the educational organisations and agreement on a wider - as much as possible - basis,... Otherwise,... is going to exist always this "unpick" in the Greek education; something which will perpetuate a confused situation and uncertainty to it... because in each governmental change with other political parties, something physiological in democratic societies, the political party in power will bring back the policy to the starting point."

However, it is very early to argue that the policy change of pre-primary and primary teacher education will or will not work, because for the time being it is in the process of implementation and the first graduates are still in their fourth year of study.

There is need for more time for the completion of students' studies and for evaluation process for the programmes

of these studies, the new type of teacher it is supposed to train, his new role in Greek society and his contribution to the better quality of the educational system.

On the other hand, knowing that the policy is not based on scientific objective criteria but on ideological and political arguments which used to be opposed by the traditional educational group, we can predict that this group, due to its traditional belief-pattern is likely to create problems during the policy implementation which probably may contribute to the "no-change" situation.

Within the Greek university sphere, our study has identified this group with the traditional group of professors of academic subjects who have already shown the first signs of disagreement with the progressive professors of education.

Our prediction is not supported only by historical evidence but also with contemporary evidence and events which are reflected in the policy implementation during the first three years of study.

These will be identified and analysed in the following discussion through,

- A. The investigation of content of studies in the programme of three different University Pedagogical Departments of Education and
- B. The critical discussions of the policy diversion of the original proposed reforms at the end of the third academic year of its implementation.

#### 7.4.2 The Investigation of Programmes of Studies in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education

It has been suggested in Chapter III that the kind of changes in the status of teachers for young children entailed in the 1982 Law, presupposes a professional teacher preparation programme which should include equally the ingredients of general education, specialised subject-matter and professional pedagogical education.

The programme of studies in the three University Pedagogical Departments of Education are going to be investigated against these requirements enhanced in the aims of the 1982 Law.

Basically, it is very difficult to make a genuine assessment because the amount of time allocated to the subject of the fourth year of studies is yet unknown in two departments.

Hence our views are based on the latest programme of studies, offered for the time being by these universities, as well as the various critics and statements about their functioning.

##### 7.4.2(a) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education of the University of Athens

This programme of studies is presented in Appendix VIII Investigating the organisation of teaching subjects, first of all there is a clear separation of the two groups of subjects, one of which belongs to the Science of Education and the other to the subject-matter and teaching practice.

According to the hand-book of studies (86), these two groups correspond to the dual role of the teacher: First the teacher as a pedagogue who should acquire the general pedagogical knowledge by studying the Science of Education and the second,

the teacher from the academic and professional point of view, who should be aware of the general and particular issues of didacticism as well as with the disciplines of a section of other departments of another school.

It is also pointed out that the content of the former disciplines does not correspond to the content of the school textbooks. On the contrary it is an example of the "kind" and the character of knowledge which is related to a concrete professional group and not a "stock" of knowledge which will be transferred later to the pupil.

In a typical four-year (or eight semesters) programme the first group provides thirty-two subjects; it is compulsory for a student to attend twelve of theory, consisting of eight of the main subjects and four of freely chosen options.

The second group provides a number of optional and obligatory subjects which are offered not only by the pedagogical department but also by other departments of other schools. Each subject has three credit units which correspond to 2 teaching hours and 1-3 hours workshop and teaching practice per week.

At first glance, the scheme displays two separate sections which correspond - according to the handbook of studies - to the general pedagogical knowledge or in other words to "how" and the academic and professional knowledge or to "what". The fact that professional knowledge (including teaching practice) is integrated with the academic subjects gives the impression of a rather more theoretical approach to <sup>the</sup> professional component than a practical one. But this case reminds us the traditional theoretical approach which used to be in all teaching subjects for the secondary school teachers and safeguarded against any change from the majority of specialised Professors of Universities.



Moreover the imbalance is apparent between the two arguments of "how" and "what" with more emphasis on the latter. But again we have proved that within the Greek context this is more associated with the traditional pattern-belief which usually resists any change and at least does not contribute to the thorough development of the teaching profession. Yet, seen against the professional rationale, the academic emphasis on the programme of studies should be replaced by a more equal distribution of the professional elements. Certainly this is a primary programme of studies which it is possible to alter in the future in accordance with the decision of the general assembly.

The Law of Higher Education, (87), Article 24, states very clearly that,

"The departmental general assembly is responsible for establishing the curriculum. The curriculum is revised every April. The Head of the Department is to create each year a curriculum committee made up of members of the departmental general assembly..."

Undoubtedly, the balance of the ingredients of preparation programmes correspond to the balance of power between the professors responsible for its construction.

In the university under discussion, despite the government decision about the composition of the teaching personnel, it seems that professors for specialised subjects had more power to influence the orientation of programmes. Justification for this inconsistency derives from the fact that there was a great shortage of qualified personnel originating from the educational sciences.

Furthermore, the argument that the new policy change is not likely to work in this powerful university - unless the present circumstances change - should be seen in the wider

framework of its organisation.

Students of the department accepted that (88),

"the first and most apparent phenomenon was the lack of typical organisation. Starting from the housing problem and reaching to the style and orientation of the department, everything has been offered in uncertainty, confusion, and without planning."

In reference to the programme of studies, again their opinion was confused: some regarded natural the choice of the teaching subjects and some others believed that they should attend the lectures within the philosophical school. Teaching methods in the majority of subjects are so traditional that "most of the students are in touch with the School only during the examinations"(89) . Students themselves are wondering,

"What education do we want for the teacher? What kind of teacher do we want to be? What school do we visualise?

Can the University with its present function and organisation produce every type of teacher we wish or is it itself restricted?" (90)

Whether or not this uncertainty and confused situation will continue depends on many factors. One thing seems to be certain: that for the time being the applied theoretical approach of pedagogical sciences is not consistent with the proposed changes enhanced by the 1982 Law. On the basis of this view we suggest that this inconsistency is likely not to contribute to the desirable "change" of the teacher education system.

#### 7.4.2(b) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education in the University of Patras

The University of Patras is the third university to be established in the country (1964) following the universities of Athens and Thessaloniki.

According to the Law, its Pedagogical Department of

Education was among the first to be introduced in the country.

The programme of studies of this department is presented in Appendix IX. According to it 44 per cent of the total time of studies is allocated to general subjects, 26 per cent to subject matter and 30 per cent to professional studies. The programme also specifies the teaching practice as follows:

A year (1st and 2nd semester): The students will listen and discuss teaching in nurseries from tapes (total 20 hours).

B year (3rd and 4th semester): The students will attend teaching in state nurseries (eight days each semester).

Г year (5th and 6th semester): The students will teach one day in a state nursery during (total two days).

Δ year (7th and 8th semester): The students will teach a total of eight days in nurseries.

A critical view of the programme shows first of all that the provision of opportunities for the students to undergo practical experience of teaching is not an important part of it.

Furthermore, the percentages of the three ingredients with priorities on general subjects shows that those who organise the courses, do not, in planning their content, take into account the primary purposes of the pedagogical departments - which are the professional preparation of teaching personnel for kindergartens - nor are they<sup>as</sup> concerned as they should be with the needs of future teachers in the technique of teaching and class management.

But these two issues, the adequate teaching practice and the plethora of general subjects, formed the traditional content of courses in Teacher Training Colleges and there was a time, before the policy change, when it was assumed that these courses involved the transmission of unacceptable knowledge in educational-ideological terms.

In this sense the content of the programme of studies in this department seems to have relatively "no-change" in comparison with those represented in Teacher Training Institutions.

Besides, if we take into account that these subjects are administered and taught largely by scholars of specialised subjects and not by those responsible for the professional and pedagogical preparation, we are faced with a type of course which in fact is intended to develop the traditional theoretical Science of Pedagogy and has probably failed to achieve a harmonious pattern of professional preparation.

Such a provided course of preparation justifies the problems of communication between teaching staff and students. According to an associate professor of this department, - who during the genesis of the policy supported the establishment of the University Pedagogical School and not the proposed policy - this is one of the many problems: (91)

"The first problem that I want to point out is that we have a frightful lack of technical material background... also there is a lack of specialised educational and teaching personnel...

I want also to point out another dimension of the difficulties... the problem which is concerned with the difficulty of communication with the students...

Most of the students are registered and are coming back again at the end of the semester, for examinations, thus inevitably our vision for the Pedagogical School, that was in each department to be the place of work, is an invisible thing...

You (the pre-primary and primary school teachers)... have asked for integration in the universities and it will be a tragic irony for the pedagogical departments

to have failed, because there is exactly an unwillingness for regular attendance and collaboration in the work... in the University."

In the light of this view which provides a somewhat depressing picture of the preparation programmes in the University Pedagogical Departments of Education of this University it would be clearly pointless to predict that under these circumstances the new policy would be successfully implemented.

Some of the presented problems were common for all new University Departments of Education (lack of material-technical equipment and teaching personnel) but the way which each department faced them reflected the interest of those responsible for their organisation.

It is feasible too that students' collaboration is primarily a matter and responsibility of teacher educators who were required to fulfil a distinctive role in the attainment of the reform objectives. If the educators have failed to develop such collaboration then it is assumed that they will be responsible for the future failure of the departments and not the students. Having identified that some of them at the beginning were not intending to implement the proposed changes entailed in the Law 1268/82, in respect of the new Pedagogical Departments, we argue that many of the problems in the department could be attributed to the kind of preparation which is emerging from the influence of the traditional educational group.

#### 7.4.2(c) Programme of Studies of Pedagogical Department of Education in the University of Thessaloniki

Examination of the programme of studies of the Pedagogical Department for Kindergarten Teachers in Salonika's University demonstrates its superior professional content.

(The programme is presented in Appendix X )

According to the hand-book of studies, the greatest amount of time is allocated to the professional education and teaching practice. In particular, 27.5 per cent of the three years teaching time is devoted to specialised subject-matter, 25.5 per cent to general education and 47 per cent to professional and practical training.

Actually, current trends in teacher education in Greece provide support rather than criticism of the emphasis in the pedagogical-professional training.

This growing trend in the teaching profession to combine pedagogical, professional and practical training appears to have two major implications for Greek teacher education. First, it appears to be <sup>a</sup>solid professional justification for the requirement of teacher-pedagogue and practice-teaching and second, it appears to offer teaching practice under the supervision of those who give the theoretical training. This means that in effect teaching practice is acquiring an operating professional intership in determining a genuine professional identify. The fact that the programme of studies under discussion seems to accomplish this principle leads us to suggest that it operates on a thorough basis for successful practice of the profession.

Seen against the professional requirements, the inherent inbalance with over emphasis on professional elements is unjustifiable as logical argument for the development of the teaching profession.

Despite this, seen against the specific social and political conditions of Greek society where the "how" is closely associated with the progressivism and change while the

"what" is rather related with tradition and "no-change", this emphasis justifies logically and supports our argument for "change". However, this argument should be strengthened by other important factors as well.

It is believed that one important factor in the thoroughly professional orientation of the structure and content of this teacher education department was the presence of the well-known progressive Professor of Education, Ch.Fragos.

He indeed played a very active role in the struggle for a real "change" in education in general and teacher education in particular. His struggle for a real "change" in the whole education system and in particular his active role in the realisation of the University Pedagogical Departments have been noted in the earlier pages.

Among the most powerful members of the teaching personnel, as was explained, he tried to combine professional values with pedagogical scientific knowledge in order to place teacher education on a thoroughly professional basis.

During the 54 General Assembly of Teachers' Union, he stressed the successful functioning of the department with 90 per cent student participation in the lectures. Indeed, according to the various statements of other universities, this percentage was exceptional and interpreted as a big success (92). He also stressed the importance of the establishment of a library for the students of the new department, the effort to create new places devoted exclusively to the Pedagogical Department within the university area and the continuing trend for improvement.

During the first year, the department organised the first Pedagogical Seminar for all the students, educational

counsellors and in-service teachers. He said,

"We want to connect the new Pedagogical Department with the teachers. Not to be an isolated department, which works only for itself and against the interests of teachers.

And students should learn from now on to fit in near the in-service pre-primary and primary school teachers."(93)

At the present time, the department through its activities brings indeed a breath of fresh air in to the educational world. It is something new. We call this "change".

In summary the main points of the preceding discussion indicate that Greek Universities cooperate in different ways in the new policy-change for teacher education. Among them, these universities which traditionally were against any change and in general were opposed to the new policy are not likely to cooperate positively in the successful implementation towards professionalisation. For example, in the University of Athens, the over-emphasis in the academic subjects, the lack of basic organisation, students' dissatisfaction with the function of the Pedagogical Department, the traditional inherent conservatism of the university itself, all were considered to be against the successful professional orientation of the teaching profession.

The University of Patras is not among the powerful universities of the country. With respect to the new department of education the over emphasis in general subjects, the lack of successful organisation, and the pessimistic view of some members of the teaching staff about the future of the department are related to traditional educational beliefs and pre-requisites which motivate behaviour against the proposed "change".

At the heart of this uncertainty we have shown that it is the power of a particular group of people - among those



who run the institution – who base their actions on the traditional belief-pattern of their mental state.

Under these circumstances it is assumed that it is possible to work successfully only when power is restored to more progressive people who are in favour of change and educational reform and their belief-pattern of mental state has been prepared for such an important change.

On the contrary, other universities which historically are more associated with progressive movements seem to be willing to cooperate positively in the new reform. For example, a critical perspective of the University of Salonika showed the evidence which we analysed as contributing successfully to the professional preparation of the future teachers.

Finally, summarising the main points, we conclude that teacher education as an autonomous sector within the universities is bound to be rather problematic in terms of control of content and the professional requirements of teaching. Also it is possible that controversy is unavoidable over certification requirements but for the time being has not emerged yet.

#### 7.4.3 Policy Diversion and Implementation

Most of the changes in teacher education that have been adopted by the Government since the relevant Law was passed, have been in the direction of granting more autonomy to the teaching profession by transferring certain powers from the State to the University professors mainly on content and certification requirements.

Control over admission procedures used always to be the government's concern and hence a political matter. Selection

procedures to higher and highest educational institutions in Greece always played a significant role in every educational reform.

The length of courses again is defined by the Government through the Law and not by the universities themselves. However, today, it is extremely doubtful whether public authorities are prepared to grant to the pre-primary and primary teacher education the kind of preparation introduced during the policy formulation and adoption.

According to the Presidential Decree which forced the functioning of the University Pedagogical Department (94),

"Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon.... accept students for the last time as first-year students for the academic year 1985-86. The functioning of the above mentioned establishment will definitely be abandoned in the academic year 1988-89."

The parallel functioning of Teacher Training Colleges with University Pedagogical Departments had been justified by the government as the only way to secure sufficient teaching personnel for kindergarten and primary schools for the first four years.

But very recently, at the end of the academic year 1987-88 a new negotiation between government agency and some public local groups on the existence of Teacher Training Colleges gave rise to some anomalies regarding the whole basis of the "integrated" University Pedagogical Departments.

Local residents of a region where there was a Teacher Training College became very active against the governmental decision to abandon the functioning of the college (95).

Their reactive activities found expression in strikes, occupations, etc., and concentrated on the demand for continuing the functioning of the college as a branch of the nearest university. This demand was based on social, cultural, economic

and national arguments related in general to the development of the region (96).

The Government did not place the issue into some sort of democratic process and professional perspective - as it should have done. Within a few days, it decided to keep on the function of that college in accordance with the local demands. Precisely, the government considered that the Teacher Training College of that local area would not close down but would continue to function as a branch of the University Pedagogical Department of Education of Thessaloniki University.

Meanwhile, residents of all the other regional areas of the country which had <sup>Local</sup> Teacher Training Colleges became active with parallel movements to press the government for the maintenance of these colleges.

At the moment, in spite of the latest governmental decision, the issue is regarded as under consideration and the educationally relevant groups are prepared for future action.

How could this unexpected policy diversion during the process of implementation be justified knowing the circumstances under which the policy has been formulated and adopted?

In the light of the present study there are two important considerations which, in our view, seem to justify the above governmental inconsistency.

First of all we have shown that the policy change was based on political and ideological preconceptions and not on hard research evidence and responsiveness to the views of a wide part of the population.

On this basis, the reactions and pressures of local groups during the implementation of the policy prove that the educationally relevant groups acted in the main in isolation from

the national community at large.

The reactions give the impression that the new policy was not attuned to popular feeling and reflect the political consequences of the policy-change in the wider public.

Faced with such negative reactions the government had to choose between the political benefit and the benefit of the teaching profession.

The decision reveals that the political benefit always takes first place. This in turn gives rise to the argument that the basic features of the political system do not change in relation to the culture and structure of Greek society.

Considering that the nature of the political system in the past was the source of many problems in the Greek educational sphere and given that it has not been changed in depth, it supports our primary argument that the source of problems in the implementation of the reform are attributed to the character of the political system and its relationships with the educational institutions of the country.

In our view this inconsistency of the political system indeed created a confused situation among the educational groups and gives an impression of some uncertainty for the future of pedagogical departments. We believe that such uncertainty, before the complete implementation of the reform, is a serious source of future problems.

The second consideration which should be taken in to account is that we have shown in Chapters II and IV, that in the past the educational policy of the Greek system used to be directed - indirectly - from the School of Philosophy of the University of Athens which was the "bulwark" of conservatism, the classical Greek tradition and the reactive force against

change.

We have also stated in the present chapter that perhaps for the first time, the policy has been formulated and adopted without the opinion of this School.

However, a team of Professors of the School of Philosophy, during the genesis of the policy had already proposed a consecutive model which presupposed the simultaneous existence of Teacher Training Colleges and University Departments.

The kind of model it had recommended started from the assumption that Teacher Training Colleges would be concerned as branches of the nearest university centre. But the diversion of the policy implementation, decided by the Minister of Education, is on the basis of this assumption.

Although details about the new type of organisation courses have not been presented yet, it is obvious that some basic concepts of the proposed model are applied by the government in an attempt to relate political benefit and the effectiveness of a particular kind of teacher preparation.

In this sense, it is argued, the rationale of the approach enhanced by the recent decision of the Ministry of Education, on the policy implementation is the effectiveness of the traditional conservative group in influencing policy, to challenge threats to its successful implementation and to establish some kind of inferiority of the new departments with long-term effect to the status and prestige of the teaching profession.

In discussing the effectiveness of the most powerful university of the country, even under the Socialist Government in power, we should refer to the recent explosive interview of the Head of the University of Penteios, Athens, who among the

others, called the Minister of Education "a man of straw"(97) , and stressed that (98), "the real authority on the matters of highest education relies on the University of Athens". Under these circumstances the Head of the University of Athens had been questioned: "What is really the role of the University of Athens in the formation of the politics of the Ministry of Education?"

The answer was indeed irrelevant to the real sense of the question. He said,(99)

"The matter of little or big influence of the University of Athens in the politics of the Ministry of Education could not be answered with simple assertions... but with elements. The University of Athens has the lower position among the other universities of the country in educational expense, per student..."

He ~~described~~ as inaccurate what the Head of the University of Panteios said and criticised him for (100),

"The new 'academic' ethos which is being introduced into the relationships of the Highest Educational Institutions.

As far as I know, in the history of Highest modern Greek education or in international sphere, such an attack from the representative of one Highest educational establishment against another Highest educational establishment has **never before happened** and is renounced in real terms as the source of every evil in the university field!! The positive or negative offer of the University of Athens is written by the history...."

The history of modern Greek education classifies the above university among the traditional institutions of the country.

Finally, in our view, the recent diversion of the Ministry of Education during the implementation process is justified partly by the character of the political system and partly by the continuing influence of the most powerful university of the country on the educational policy.

We believe that if this decision is put into practice, the consequences for the status and morale of elementary school teachers will be far-reaching.

However, for the time being there is a growing dissatisfaction with the present arrangements for the functioning of University Pedagogical Departments.

The inadequate financial resources and provision of teaching personnel, the lack of basic material - technical background and the way these departments are operating within the University sphere all create fears for future decline. The dissatisfaction has been expressed by the Teachers' Union during a special meeting on "The Problems and Perspectives of the Pedagogical Departments" (101).

Certainly these problems might be solved with adequate resources since they are determined to a large extent by the Government.

However, there are some other serious issues identified in the present research which put at risk the present reform. These are,

- (i) The traditional mental state of some academics and politicians in power towards teachers' professionalisation.
- (ii) The link between the development of modern Pedagogical Sciences in Greece and the political attitudes of those involved in the educational process.
- (iii) The lack of content organisation according to the professional and pedagogical requirements.
- (iv) The lack of professional participation in the control of the specific issues of elementary teacher education.
- (v) The unsatisfactory relationships between many Departments of Education and University activities.

(vi) The signs that the study of education in the new departments is not acknowledged as an intellectually respectable activity gives the impression that the departments occupy peripheral positions in the circles of universities.

As we have seen these issues are often determined by the university scholars and the relationships among them at the ideological level.

The discussion showed that at the heart of these problems of the educational reforms are two responsible agencies: the government and the university teaching staff.

Both agencies have expressed their willingness to contribute to successful policy implementation, but in both, apparent inconsistencies carried over in to their action and lead to the above problems.



References - Chapter VII

- (1) Sindesmos Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion Ptichiouchon Panepistimion imedaepis "Protaseis gia anotates Pedagogikes scholes" in Newspaper, Vema, 8.11.80
- (2) Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, "He Pedagogikes Akademies prepi na ginoun anoteress Scholes", in Newspaper, Vema, 8.11.80.
- (3) Ypourgeio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Gia tin idrisi tou A.P.I., written document No. Δ/34853/ 11.10.1979 of the under-secretary of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the "Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon", Athens.
- (4) Papachristos, M., He dynamiki tou Sindikalistikou mas Kinimatos, Report to the 52nd Annual General Assembly of the DOE, Athens, 21-25 June, 1983.
- (5) Ypourgeio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Threskevmaton, Schetika me themata spoudon ton scholon sas, written document No. Γ/932/9.3.80 of the under-secretary of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the General Director of the Pedagogical Academy of Lamia, President of the Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, Athens.
- (6) Ypourgeio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Theskevmaton, written document No. Γ/1181 Urgent of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the General Director of Pedagogical Academy of Lamia, President of the Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, Athens.
- (7) Fragos, Ch., To problima tis Ekpedefsiss ton daskalon, Report to the First Panhellenic Scientific Congress of the DOE on the subject of The Teacher Training Colleges, Athens, 9.3.1980.
- (8) Fragos, Ch., op.cit.
- (9) Fragos, Ch., op.cit.
- (10) Members of the team were three regular Professors of Psychology and Pedagogy, School of Philosophy, University of Athens. These were Paraskevopoulos, I., Markantonis, I., and Danasis-Afentakis, A.
- (11) Paraskevopoulos, I., Markantonis, I., and Danasis-Afentakis, A., "To schedio mondello gia tis Panepistimiakes Scholes Litourgon Stichiodous Ekpaudefseos", in Newspaper, Vema, 26.10.80.
- (12) Ibid.

- (13) Didaskaliki Dmospondia Ekpedeftikon (DOE), "48 ori apergia daskalon ke Nipiagogon" (20 and 21 10.1980), in Synchrono Nipiagogeio, Ed. Vasdekis, November 1980, Athens, pp. 379-380.
- (14) Vigopoulos, I., "He Ekpaedefsi ton daskalon" in Synchrono Nipiagogeio, Ed. Vasdekis, November 1980, Athens, p. 418.
- (15) "Dio syskepsis gia tin anotatopiisi ton Pedagogikon Akademion ke ton Scholon Nipiagogon, in Newspaper, Nea, Athens, 15.10.1980.
- (16) Vigopoulos, I., "He Ekpaidefis ton daskalon", op.cit., p. 418.
- (17) Wolfgang, R., "Greece: Students Wait for Reform", in Western European Education, 1985, Vol. XVII, No.3, p. 19.
- (18) Eggleston, J.S., "Breaking with Urban Tradition brings Fresh Academic Hope", in Times Higher Educational Supplement, 4.2.83.
- (19) Benn, C., "Bloodless Revolution in Greece's Universities" in Times Higher Educational Supplement, 9.4.82.
- (20) Graham, D., "Greece Smartly Changes Pace and Direction" in Times Higher Educational Supplement, 9.4.82.
- (21) Helliniki Demokratia, Ypourgeio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Threskevmaton, O Nomos 1268/82 gia tin domi ke litourgia ton anotaron Ekpedeftikon Idrimaton, Organismos Ekdoseon didaktikon v w lion, Athens, 1982, p. 7.
- (22) ibid. p.8.
- (23) Fragos, C., To problima tis Ekpedefsis ton daskalon, Report to the First Panhellenic Scientific Congress of the DOE on the subject of the Teacher Training Colleges, Athens, 9.3.80.
- (24) Psarouda-Benaki, A., Spokesman of New Democracy in Parliamentary Proceedings, 16 June 1982, p. 4790.
- (25) Varvitsiotis, I., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 17 June 1982, p. 4848.
- (26) Kontogianopoulos, V., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 16 June, 1982, p. 4783.
- (27) Verivakis, E., Spokesman of PASOK in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5228.
- (28) Damnaki, M., Spokesman of KKE, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5229.
- (29) Kanelopoulos, P., Independent Spokesman, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5230.
- (30) Stefanopoulos, D., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5231

- (31) Kalteziotis, N., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5233.
- (32) Verivakis, E., Spokesman of PASOK, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982, p. 5232.
- (33) Averof, E., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 24 June 1982.
- (34) Averof, E., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 29 June 1982.
- (35) Averof, E., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 24 June 1982.
- (36) Rallis, G., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 18 June 1982.
- (37) Farakos, G., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 18 June 1982.
- (38) Damanaki, M., Speech in the Newspaper, To Vema, 16 June 1982.
- (39) Kappos, K., Speech in the Parliament, Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June, 1982, p. 5243.
- (40) Pesmatzoglou, I., Speech in the Newspaper, To Vema, 16 June 1982.
- (41) Announcement in the Newspaper, To Vema, 15 June 1982.
- (42) Announcement in the Newspaper, Avgi, 16 June 1982.
- (43) Ibid.
- (44) Announcement in the Newspaper Akropolis, 15 June 1982
- (45) Saphalis, K., Speech in the Parliament, 28 June 1982, Parliamentary Proceedings, p. 4795.
- (46) Panagiotopoulos, P., "He Krisi stin anotatipedeia pire ekriktikes diastasis" in Newspaper, Kathemerini, Athens, 1.1.1985.
- (47) Beis, I., "He epistimoniki erevna ke o 'nomos-plesio'" in Newspaper, Kathemerini, Athens, 6.1.83
- (48) L.X. "Anamenonte nees exelixis stis Pedagogikes Scholes" in Newspaper, Makedonia, Athens, 2.3.83.
- (49) Papathemelis, St., "Anakinosi gia ta pedagogika tmimata" in Newspaper, Eleftherotipia, 2 March 1983

- (50) Ypourgeo Pedeias ke Threskevmaton, "Epitropi programmaton pedagogikon tmimaton" No. 81/383/6.4.83, Decision of the Minister of Education in Didaskaliko Vema, ed. Didaskaliki Omospondia Hellados, No. 937, June, 1983, Vol. A.
- (51) Kaklamanis, A., Cheretismos Ypourgou Ethnikis Paideias ke Threskevmaton, Report to the A International Pedagogical Conference of the Pedagogical Society of Greece on the subject, "Education and In-Service Education of Teachers", Athens, 23,25 September 1983.
- (52) Kremmidas, B., Report in the round-table discussion organised by Sillogos Daskalon ke Nipiagogen Rethimnou Kretes on the subject, "Ta pedagogika tmimata," Rethimno, 8.10.83 in Didaskaliko Vema, ed. Didaskaliki Omospondia Hellados, No. 947, January 1984.
- (53) Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas "Pos theloume ta pedagogika tmimata" in Didaskaliko Vema, Athens, No. 944, November 1983.
- (54) Papachristos, M., "He daskali ta scholia kehe mathites", in Newspaper, Vema, 13 July 1984.
- (55) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogikos viasmos" in Newspaper, Vema, 4 August, 1984
- (56) Papathemelis, S., "To thema tis sinthesis tou D.E.P. ton Pedagogikon Tmimaton" in Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949, March, 1984, Athens.
- (57) Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedias ke threskevmaton, Sinthesi tou DEP ton Pedagogikon tmimaton, telegraph dated 19.3.1984, to the Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas, Athens.
- (58) Moralis, S., "He sinthesi tou DEP ton Pedagogikon tmimaton" in D.A.S.K., I povathmizonte ta Pedagogika tmimata, in He selida ton parataxeon, Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949, March 1984.
- (59) Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima daskalon, "Pedagogika tmimata" in He selida ton parataxeon, Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949, March, 1984.
- (60) Ibid.
- (61) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogikos viasmos", op.cit.
- (62) Papachristos, M., "He daskali, ta scholia ke i mathites," op.cit.
- (63) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes" in Newspaper, Vema, 1 July 1984.
- (64) Kazamias, A., "The Education of Teachers in Greece" in European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 8, No.2, 1985 p. 130-131.

- (65) Holmes, B., "The Politics of Teacher Education" in Teacher Education, Comparative Education Society in Europe, Proceedings of the Fifth General Meeting, Stockholm, 1971, The Society, Stockholm, 1971.
- (66) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Nomos No. 1268, 16 July 1982, Athens, Article 16, paragraph 2.
- (67) Hondolidou, E., "Gia tin Ekpedefsi ton Ekpedeftikon" in Synchroni Ekpedefsi, Vol. 30, September-October, 1986, p. 104.
- (68) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes", op.cit.
- (69) Kosmopoulos, A., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes" in Newspaper, Vema, 25 July 1984.
- (70) Ibid.
- (71) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogikos viasmos", op.cit.
- (72) Ibid.
- (73) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes", op.cit.
- (74) Ibid.
- (75) Kosmopoulos, A., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes", op.cit.
- (76) Ibid.
- (77) Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice Hall, U.S.A., 1956, p. 192.
- (78) Papachristos, M., "He daskali ta scholia kehe mathites", op.cit.
- (79) Ibid.
- (80) Damanakis, M., "Pedagogika tmimata: programma spoudon Ke Organosi" in Synchroni Ekpedefsi, 6th Year, Vol. 24, September, October, 1985, Athens, pp. 89-95.
- (81) Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogikos viasmos", op.cit.
- (82) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, London, 1981, p. 83.
- (83) Ibid., p. 84.
- (84) Nikolaidis, T., "Ekpedeftikes antinomies" in Newspaper, Vema, 5 July 1987.
- (85) Chatzistefanidis, Th., "Istoria tis Neoellinikis Ekpedefsis", op.cit.

- (86) Panepistimio Athinon, Pedagogiko tmima tis Dimotikis Ekpedefsis, 'Programma spoudon scholiko etos 1985-86, Athens.
- (87) Ephimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Nomos No. 1268, op.cit.
- (88) Omada fititon tou Pedagogikou Tmimatos Dimotikis Ekpedefsis tou Panepistimiou Athinon, "Gia na archisi he sizitisi giro apo ta Pedagogika Tmimata" in Synchroni Ekpedefsi, Vol. 23, July-August 1985, Athens, p. 91.
- (89) Ibid.
- (90) Ibid., p. 92.
- (91) Polychronopoulos, P., Speech in the 54th General Assembly of Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas at Stadio of Irinis ke Filias, Athens, 21-26 June 1985.
- (92) Fragos, C., Speech in the 54th General Assembly of Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas at Stadio Iriniske Filias, Athens, 21-26 June, 1985.
- (93) Ibid.
- (94) Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Proedriko diatagwa No. 319 in No. 116A, 7.9.1983, Athens, Article 7, paragraph 1.
- (95) "Kinitopiisis ton Katikon tis Florinis me etima ti litourgia Pedagogikou tmimatos stin politnus," in Newspaper, Thessaloniki, 26.2.1987 and 10.3.1987,
- (96) Ibid.
- (97) Kontogiorgis, G., Interview on the Metonomasia tis Pantiou se Panepistimio, in Ikonomikos Tachidromos No. 23, 11th June, 1987, Athens.
- (98) Ibid.
- (99) Stathopoulos, M., "O k M. Stathopoulos apanta ston K.G. Kontogiorgi" in Ikonomikos Tachidromos, No. 27 2 July 1987, Athens.
- (100) Ibid.
- (101) Bliatkas, K., "Provlimata ke prooptikes gia ta Pedagogika tmimata: simperasmata apo tin imerida pou diorganose i didaskaliki omospondia Elladas gia tin politistiki ke ti morfotiki entaxi ton daskalon ke Nipiagogon" in Newspaper, Makedonia, 4.7.87, Thessaloniki.

## Chapter VIII

CONCLUSIONS

The teaching profession in Greece was characterised by a dual disability. Part of its members, pre-primary and primary school teachers have been isolated during their education from other contacts and constituted lower class status category in comparison with secondary school teachers.

The class distinction was not determined by professional competence but by the Institution in which the teacher received his professional preparation, the length of course, the subjects taught and the nature of its final award.

Teacher Training Colleges known as Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogon were designed to perform the limited function of providing teachers for the first level of education and have been deliberately maintained as lower status institutions able to offer only a broad general academic knowledge.

The arrangements of this policy which affected the quality, the status and hence the effectiveness of the teaching profession is attributed to the prevailing social and political powers (1) which aimed systematically to control not only the framework and the content of the educational functions but also the institutions within which elementary school teachers were educated.

The various proposals which had been made by liberal political parties and the progressive educationists of the country were designed to end the distinction of the teaching profession by providing education courses of university standard. These were not implemented until 1982.

Through the research the dominant feature in the

development of elementary teacher education has been principally its close relationship with political matters.

The investigation demonstrates that the failure for teacher preparation change before 1982 was not because of an inability of the Greek educational system to produce a graduate profession but because of a lack of agreement among the political forces as well as the educational intelligentsia of the country.

The right wing political party did not wish to change substantially either the quality and status of elementary school teachers or the university status quo by introducing new educational courses.

Proposals for change were considered in isolation by the system of highest education and it is doubtful whether they were designed to raise standards in the professional preparation of these teachers by introducing more pedagogical elements.

The educational policy of the liberal political parties was intended to reduce the barriers which separated elementary teachers from the rest of the teaching profession by integrating their education fully into the structure of the university system and providing equal opportunities for preparation to all teachers.

During the last hundred years this diversity of the political life in Greece has reverberated throughout educational debates.

The disagreement between conservative and progressive educationists about the nature of the solutions to the existing educational problems had primarily politically opposed ideological roots and gave rise to some doubts as to the success of any essential reform attempt.



The problem of elementary teacher education and the proposed solutions by both political groupings reflect one of the major differences between them.

During the development of the Greek educational system the conservatives pressed for short periods of training within the institutions which were under their complete control in terms of students' admission, length of courses, content and examination procedures while the progressives pressed for longer periods within the university sector.

After the middle sixties, the proposed reform of the conservatives who were in power left behind the reorganisation of the arrangements for the professional education of elementary school teachers despite the various socio-economic, political and educational changes that occurred inside and outside the country.

At this time this uneven rate of adaptation of teacher preparation to current needs and development became the root of many tensions and anxieties among the educationally relevant interest groups. In the early eighties the emerging picture had the following peculiarity: the conservatives on the one hand claimed that the system of teacher training needed an essential change and on the other hand it seemed that they wished to delay any progress in this area by postponing any operational policy-change for the future.

In our view this paradox is explained by their conservative traditional attitudes and beliefs which rely on their pattern of mental state and are used in motivating their behaviour towards the political and educational positions.

The roots of these "residues" or "lower valuation" are closely related to the conservative tendency to look for new

sources of educational ideals within the classical tradition and Christian morality.

The consequences of the traditional beliefs and values appeared in the field concerned with education of elementary school teachers in two dimensions: First, they shaped their preparation programmes and their status in Greek society in such a way as to constitute obstacles for them in fulfilling successfully their contemporary changing role.

Second, their persistence prohibited the natural development of modern Pedagogical Science within the Greek context - an inseparable element for the education of teachers in all levels - and cultivated the establishment of some kind of theoretical-classical philology-pedagogy, which applied only to the education of secondary school teachers.

In 1982, the introduction of University Pedagogical Departments for the education of pre-primary and primary school teachers reflected the intention of the Socialist Government to improve teachers' social status, the quality of their preparation and to reduce the duality of the teaching profession.

Focusing on the professional values, implicit or explicit, in the reform measures, it is believed that the impact of the creation of the new type of teacher preparation on the teaching profession is considerable.

The evidence is not conclusive, but it seems probable as opposed to the traditional European model, that the university Pedagogical Departments will help to reduce professional differences in teaching and to promote cooperation between teachers of all levels within the educational sphere.

It may be argued that the ultimate values of the reform

in the long run are two-fold: first and foremost to prepare teachers to act as agents of social and educational change in the dynamic Greek society thus changing their traditional role and status in accordance with contemporary educational, social and political needs.

Secondly , to create all the prerequisites for the development of the modern pedagogical sciences within the university sector.

The implementation of the reform proposals involve a considerable upheaval in the traditional structure and function of the Greek universities and face them with problems of some magnitude.

These problems partly relate to university academic standards and partly to university willingness to retain responsibility for the standards of the teaching profession.

At present there are signs that both kinds of problems have been estimated on the basis of different principles by the two ideologically opposed groups of university scholars, the conservatives and the progressives.

The signs have become apparent in the way these groups cooperate in the implementation of the reform and involve their responsibility for the curricula and content of the new education courses.

The major difference between the two educational groupings seems to be the nature of knowledge which should be provided in the new Pedagogical Departments.

The conservative group maintains that the graduates should have a high standard of subject knowledge to begin with and the progressives claim that students first of all should learn how to teach.

In our view the controversy which has been observed in the educational debates among the two groups is one way to disguise their political disagreement as educational claims. But these tactics include a serious danger for the successful implementation of the reform. They try to involve the newly created University Pedagogical Departments in matters which usually have place in political debates.

On the other hand we believe that in so doing they attempt to politicise the development of the modern pedagogical science in Greece.

This is, however, in conformity with political arguments like (2), "... Science, with the face of research and teaching.. has political dimension..."

These considerations raise the parallel question of whether the underlying values of the reform will be applied in the actual implementation.

Its political implication and the need for a cooperative attitude for the tasks that now devolve upon the university scholars, as members of the teaching personnel, requires some kind of agreement among the two opposed educationally relevant groups.

On the basis of the present day facts this requirement seems to apply only in theoretical terms. In practical terms, the actions of the conservative group due to their mental state, tend to falsify the content and quality of the education courses provided.

The apparent inconsistencies of their thought and behaviour is fully understandable in terms of the persistence of the traditional beliefs and attitudes, and serve to explain also the different orientation of some university education programmes from that which was intended by Law.

The assessment of the implementation of the reforms present a number of difficulties which are likely to give rise to future problems. These difficulties are associated mainly with,

- (i) the absence of serious educational research and preliminary planning studies;
- (ii) the fact that the policy change has been based on a combination of political faith and expediency and it was not the natural outcome of the educational system itself;
- (iii) the well-known conservatism of part of the teacher education educators.

These problems will appear either in the short or in the long term and will undoubtedly devalue the present reform and will prevent the evolution of the teaching profession in the right direction.

Although it is too early to know what exactly will be the ultimate result of the new integrated courses, the identified problems lead to non-optimistic thought for the goal set.

If the educational reform is to be established successfully, some of those responsible for the organisation and content of the provided education courses ought to reconsider whether it is possible to separate their political disagreement from the educational principles.

This in turn would require a common agreement among the political parties on the educational ends of the reform.

Our suggestions involve the establishment of a special independent educational committee, composed of represen-

tatives of all interest groups regardless of their political orientation, which, on the basis of research evidence at national level, and on a properly planned system of teacher education, would be able to make recommendations which could probably solve the inherent difficulties.

But if this is too much and it sounds more or less like Utopia for someone who is familiar with the present reality in Greece, there is always a chance for sensitive educationists to take into account the premature problems identified in this thesis and to contribute effectively in policy implementation.

We believe that the Greek educational system is able to change and hence pre-primary and primary school teachers might meet the challenge of professionalisation.

If so, then the change will be fundamental.

References - Chapter VIII

- (1) Noutsos, Ch., Ideologia ke Ekpedefitiki. Politiki,  
Themelio 1986, Athens, p. 87.
- (2) Tsatsos, D., To Sintagma ke he anotati Pedeia,  
Speech in the Third Department of The Council of the  
State as representative of the University of  
Thessaloniki, 3.2.1984, Athens.

APPENDIX IFaculties, Departments and Duration of Studies, in the University of Athens, 1984.

Faculty	Department	Duration of Studies
Theology	(a) Theology	8 semesters
	(b) Pastoral Care	8 semesters
Law, Economics and Political Science	(a) Law	8 semesters
	(b) Political Science and Public Administration	8 semesters
	(c) Economics	8 semesters
Arts	(a) Philosophy	8 semesters
	(b) English Language and Literature	8 semesters
	(c) French Language and Literature	8 semesters
	(d) German Language and Literature	8 semesters
Applied Sciences	(a) Physics	8 semesters
	(b) Chemistry	8 semesters
	(c) Biology	8 semesters
	(d) Mathematics	8 semesters
	(e) Geology	8 semesters
Health Sciences	(a) Medicine	12 semesters
	(b) Dentistry	10 semesters
	(c) Pharmacy	8 semesters
Land-related Sciences	(a) Agriculture	10 semesters
	(b) Forestry	10 semesters
	(c) Veterinary Medicine	10 semesters
Engineering	(a) Civil Engineering	10 semesters
	(b) Architecture	10 semesters
	(c) Mechanical Engineering	10 semesters
	(d) Electrical Engineering	10 semesters
	(e) Chemical Engineering	10 semesters
	(f) Surveying	10 semesters
	(a) Physical and Sport Studies	8 semesters
	(b) Education (Primary)	8 semesters
	(c) Education (Nursery)	8 semesters

Source: Directorate for Statistical and Organisation Research, Research and Statistics Division, Ministry of Education, Athens, 1983.



APPENDIX IIParticipation of lower socio-economic status students  
in tertiary education

Institution	Father's Occupation		
	Farmer, Fisherman, Craftsman, and Worker		
	1956 %	1963 %	1972 %
School of Fine Arts	16	25	33
Polytechnic University of Athens	7	15	28
Graduate Agricultural School of Athens	38	45	55
University of Ioannina	-	-	58
University of Patras	-	-	43
University of Salonika	27	37	46
Medical School of Salonika	21	32	39
School of Dentistry of Salonika	-	30	40
Polytechnic School of Salonika	14	19	33
University of Athens	20	27	36
Medical School of Athens	17	23	28
School of Dentistry of Athens	21	24	33
Graduate School of Industrial Studies, Salonika	-	44	57
Graduate School of Industrial Studies, Pireus	-	42	51
Colleges of Teacher Training	41	59	73
Pantios Graduate School of Political Sciences	31	41	49
Total	24.4	33.2	43.5

Source: National Statistical Yearbook: Statistics of Education,  
1955-56, 1962-63, 1971-72.

National Statistical Service of Greece, Athens.

APPENDIX IIICurriculum of Two-Year Primary Teacher Training CollegeHours per week, by year

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Years</u>	
	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>
(1) Religion	2	1
(2) Greek Modern Language and Literature	2	2
(3) Greek History and Greek Civilisation - Folklore	2	2
(4) Mathematics	2	2
(5) Physical Sciences	3	2
(6) Pedagogics:		
(a) General Pedagogue	2	-
(b) General Didactics	2	-
(c) Specialised Didactics in subjects taught in primary schools	4	4
(d) Education for Disadvantaged Children	-	1
(e) Child's Somatology	-	1
(7) Psychology:		
(a) General and Pedagogical Psychology	1	1
(b) Developmental Psychology	1	-
(c) Psychology of individual differences	-	2
(8) Introduction to Philosophy	2	-
(9) Social and Political Education	-	1
(10) Art and Craft	3	3
(11) Gymnastics	2	3
(12) Music	2	3
(13) Organisation and Administration of Edn.	-	1
(14) Domestic Economy	1	1
(15) Hygiene	1	-
(16) Foreign Language	2	2
(17) Elements of Agriculture	1	1
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	<u>35</u> hours	<u>33</u> hours

---

Teaching Practice is defined by the Director of the College

APPENDIX IVCurriculum of Two-year School of Kindergarten TeachersHours per week, by year

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Year</u>	
	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>
(1) Religious, National Social and Political Education	1	1
(2) General Pedagogy	2	-
(3) History of Early Childhood Education	2	-
(4) General Didactics	2	-
(5) Specialised Didactics in Kindergarten	1	3
(6) Education for Disadvantaged Children	-	1
(7) General Psychology	2	-
(8) Child Psychology	3	-
(9) Psychology and Adaptation	-	2
(10) Psychopathology of the Child	-	2
(11) Education and Speech	2	2
(12) Domestic Economy	3	3
(13) Hygiene	3	-
(14) Infant Care	-	3
(15) Gymnastics for Children	3	3
(16) Art and Craft	3	3
(17) Music	3	3
(18) Biology	1	1
(19) Teaching Practice is defined by the Director of the College	—	"
Total	<u>31</u> hours	<u>27</u> hours

---

THE CONTENT OF CURRICULUM OF TEACHER  
TRAINING COLLEGES

APPENDIX V

According to the Law the content of the official curricula of Pedagogical Academies and Schools of Nipiagogen should offer the rudiments of the following:

A. PEDAGOGICAL ACADEMIES

(1) Religion

I year Introduction and the basic principles of Religion,  
 Religious literature.

II year The Christian Orthodox church  
 Religious literature.

(2) Greek modern language and literature

I year The history of Greek language  
 Greek literature and study of the representative  
 classical Greek writings  
 Greek grammar.

II year Language and civilisation  
 Analysis of some parts of the Greek classical  
 literature particularly from Platon's writings.  
 Greek poems and grammar  
 Oral and written language  
 Techniques of right speech.

(3) Greek History and Greek Civilisation - Folklore

I year Introduction  
 The ancient Greek civilisation  
 Greek history until the period of Alexander the Great  
 Greek folklore.

II year Historical places of Greece  
 The study of Greek history from the period of  
 Alexander the Great until today.  
 Greek folklore: poems, songs, dancing.

(4) Mathematics

I year Theory of Totals, Arithmetic, Geometry

II year Algebra, Geometry, Theory of Totals.

(5) Physical Sciences

I year Physics and Chemistry, Laboratory, Biology, Geography

II year Physics and Chemistry, Physiognostic Studies.

(6) Pedagogics(a) General Pedagogue

I year Introduction to pedagogical science, theoretical and philosophical bases of education, teacher and students.

Organisation of school life in accordance with the "good" environment.

(b) General Didactics

I year Introduction to General Didactics

(c) Specialised Didactics in subjects taught in primary schools

I and II years :

The aim of the subjects is that students must understand the contribution of each subject taught in primary school to the realisation of the general aims of education. Furthermore to exercise their ability to teach successfully these subjects in order to fulfil their purpose.

(d) Education for Disadvantaged Children

II year Introduction, basic principles, education techniques for disadvantaged children.

(e) Child's Somatology

II year Factors of physical development (environment - heritage) - the purpose of physical exercise.

- (7)        Psychology
- (a)        General and Pedagogical Psychology
- I year     Concept, purpose and meaning, general principles and research methods, current trends in psychology.
- II year    Psychology of personality, adaptation and learning.
- (b)        Developmental Psychology
- I year     Introduction, concept, purpose and objectives, study of intellectual development and thinking.
- (c)        Psychology of Individual Differences
- II year    General purpose and concepts, the use of tests and methods of their evaluation.
- (8)        Introduction to Philosophy
- I year     General Introduction, Metaphysics, Gnosiology, Aesthetics, Morality.
- (9)        Social and Political Education
- II year    Introduction to the concepts of the state and the society. Theories about the function of the state.
- (10)       Art and Craft
- I and II year:    Theoretical and practical aspects of art and craft.
- (11)       Gymnastics
- I and II year:    Theory and student's exercise in athletics and other activities in school.
- (12)       Music
- I and II year:    Theory, choros, Ecclesiastical music.
- (13)       Organisation and Administration of Education
- II year:    General principles – organisation and administration of primary school.

(14) Domestic Economy

I and II  
years: Family and diet, family education.

For females only: elements of infant care and  
general instructions for cooking, sewing, domestic  
economy.

(15) Hygiene

I year Individual, social and school hygiene, first aid.

(16) Foreign Language

I and II  
years: English, French or German.

(17) Elements of Agriculture

I and II  
years: The science of agriculture, basic principles, the  
development of agriculture in Greece - school gardens.

(18) Teaching practice was defined by the Director of the  
College (usually the maximum was 10 hours).

APPENDIX VIB. SCHOOLS FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS(1) Religious, National, Social and Political Education

The subject aimed to strengthen the religious consciousness and the national, social and political feeling of students as agents of these values and ideals.

I year Religious Education, The State and Society, Political Systems.

II year Study of the Greek Orthodox literature  
The concept of democracy.

(2) General Pedagogy

I year Introduction to the pedagogical science, the concept of pedagogos, early childhood education, the aims and purpose of pre-school education, the role of the teacher.

(3) History of Early Childhood Education

I year Early childhood education in ancient Greece, the impact of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalotzi, Froebel, Sisters Agazzi, M. Montessori, Decroly, E. Claparede, OMER in the development of early childhood education.

(4) General Didactics

I year Introduction, basic concepts, the application of science in the Greek nurseries - methodology - organisation and function of nurseries.

(5) Specialised Didactics in Kindergartens

I and II years: Preschool activities in accordance with the principles of the national curricula for Greek kindergarten.  
Emphasis in aesthetic, intellectual, cognitive, mathematical exercises as well as language and emotional development.



- (6)        Education for Disadvantaged Children  
 II year    Basic concepts and special characteristics -  
              special education.
- (7)        General Psychology  
 I year     Basic concepts and principles of general psychology,  
              (cognition, attention, fantasy, memory, intelligence,  
              motives).
- (8)        Child's Psychology  
 I year     Emotional and intellectual development of the child.  
              Stages of development and their characteristics.
- (9)        Psychology and Adaptation  
 II year    The concept of social and psychological adaptation -  
              motives - the difficult child-techniques.
- (10)       Psychopathology of the Child  
 II year    Intelligence and the use of TESTS. Difficulties in  
              schools due to children's emotional difficulties -  
              the role of teacher.
- (11)       Education and Speech  
 I year     Introduction to the oral and writing language-  
              techniques of good speech, the development of Greek  
              language since the ancient Greece until today.  
 II year    The art of discussion, children's poems and literature.
- (12)       Domestic Economy  
 I and II    Food and Diet, clothes, instruction in cooking,  
 years:     sewing, service, house, family and social education.
- (13)       Hygiene  
 I year     Individual and social hygiene in the nursery.
- (14)       Infant Care  
 II year    First aid - school hygiene.

(15) Gymnastics for Children

I and II

years: Gymnastics for students and for young children.

(16) Art and Craft

I and II

years: Theoretical and practical instruction including painting, decoration, art and craft for teaching pedagogical material.

(17) Music

I and II

years: Theory and practice through the use of a musical instrument— music for young children.

(18) Biology

I and II

years: Elements from biology and agriculture.  
Relevant activities for the school system.

COMMITTEE'S PROPOSALSAPPENDIX VII

The committee proposed three sections of subjects under the headings:

Section I: Science of Education

Section II: For the departments of primary school teachers: Studies of content with three divisions:

(a) Theoretical science

(b) Positive science

(c) Aesthetic and physical education or for the departments of pre-primary school school teachers:

Studies for pre-school activities.

Section III: Methodology and teaching practice.

Particularly for the pedagogical department of primary school teachers the committee proposed the following subjects:

SECTION I: SCIENCE OF EDUCATION

- (1) Foundation of Pedagogy
- (2) Psychopedagogy
- (3) Sociology of Education - Economy and Education
- (4) Comparative Pedagogy
- (5) Methodology of Pedagogical Research
- (6) Development of Psychology (with elements of General and Clinical Psychology)
- (7) Teaching Programmes - School Textbooks
- (8) Special Education

SECTION II: STUDIES OF CONTENT

- (a) Theoretical Science
  - (1) Modern Greek language - theory and practice
  - (2) Modern Greek literature through the sources

- (3) Introduction to historical sources
- (4) Modern Greek history
- (5) Introduction to political science
- (6) Biblical literature and texts from the fathers of the Church.
- (b) Positive Science
  - (1) Introduction to the elementary mathematics
  - (2) Introduction to the micro-computers
  - (3) Physical science and technology
  - (4) Environmental education.
- (c) Aesthetic and Physical Education
  - (1) Aesthetic and artistic education
  - (2) Physical education and athletics.

For the pedagogical department of pre-primary school teachers the committee suggested the following:

#### SECTION I: SCIENCE OF EDUCATION

- (1) Foundation of Pedagogy
- (2) Psychopedagogy
- (3) Sociology of Pre-school age
- (4) Comparative Pedagogy
- (5) Developmental Psychology and Education
- (6) Special Education.

#### SECTION II: STUDIES FOR PRE-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

- (1) Modern Greek language - theory and practice
- (2) Modern Greek literature
- (3) Literature for young children through the texts
- (4) Speech
- (5) Modern Greek history
- (6) Introduction to Political Science

- (7) Pedagogical aspects of the biblical literature and texts from the Fathers of the Church
- (8)- Mathematics of pre-school education
- (9) Physical science in pre-school age
- (10) Environmental education
- (11) Aesthetic and artistic education
- (12) Musical education
- (13) Physical education
- (14) Health and diet.

### SECTION III: METHODOLOGY AND TEACHING PRACTICE

- (1) Methodology:
  - (a) General concepts, nursery organisation
  - (b) Workshop
  - (c) Educational technology.
- (2) Teaching Practice.

APPENDIXVIIICURRICULA OF PEDAGOGICAL DEPARTMENT FOR PRIMARY  
SCHOOL LEVEL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS(Academic Year 1985-1986)'A' GROUP: SCIENCE OF EDUCATION (45 units)I. Compulsory Subjects (36 units)

1. Introduction to the Science of Education
2. Sociology of Education I
3. Psycho-sociology of the School I
4. Theories of Education
5. Methodology of Pedagogical Research
6. Developmental Psychology I
7. General Psychology I
8. History of Education
9. Theories of Learning I and Educational Practice
10. Psycho-sociology of the School II
11. Theories of Learning II and Educational Practice
12. General Psychology II

II. Optional (3 Compulsory)

13. History of Education II
14. Clinical Psychology
15. Evaluation in Education
16. Comparative Pedagogy
17. Economics of Education
18. Psychopathology of the Child
19. Special Education
20. Social Psychology
21. Curriculum Studies
22. School Textbooks

/Cont...

23. Education and Politics
24. Organisation and Administration of Education
25. Philosophy of Education
26. Advisory Pedagogy
27. The Teacher and Popular Education
28. Modern Philosophical Trends
29. Developmental Psychology II
30. Problems of Learning and Pedagogical Behaviour
31. Advisory Guidance
32. Sociology of Education II.

'B' GROUP: SUBJECT-MATTER AND TEACHING PRACTICE (75 units)

- I. Compulsory Subjects (27 units)
  - (1a) Teaching Practice
    1. Theories of Teaching I
    2. Theories of Teaching II
    3. Teaching of Language I
    4. Teaching of Language II
    5. Teaching of Mathematics I
    6. Teaching of Mathematics II
    7. Teaching of History and Geography I
    8. Teaching of Religion
    9. Teaching of Natural Sciences.
  - (1b) Scientific Approach of Subject Matter  
with choice of one of two of the following:
    - (1) 3-6 Lectures on: Modern Greek Language and Literature:
      - (a) language and thought
      - (b) language and education
      - (c) literature for children.
    - 6-3 Lectures on: The Evolution of Scientific Thought:
      - (a) Mathematics
      - (b) Physics.

/Cont...

- (2) 5-4 Lectures on: Modern Greek Language and Literature:  
 (a) language and thought  
 (b) language and education  
 (c) Literature for children

- 4-5 Lectures on: The Evolution of Scientific Thought:  
 (a) Mathematics  
 (b) Physics.

II. Optional (7 compulsory) (21 units)

1. Teaching of History and Geography II
2. Teaching of Politics and Social Education
3. Teaching of Natural Science
4. Teaching of Art and Craft
5. Creative and Artistic Activities
6. Introduction to Political Sciences
7. Introduction to Historical Studies
8. Theoretical Linguistics
9. Physical Education.

\* \* \* \*

According to the Regulation of Studies the educational work of each academic year is divided in to two semesters.

The curriculum is adjusted to the minimum possible number of semesters required for graduation which cannot be less than eight semesters.

The student completes his studies and graduates (if he has passed grades in the course and acquires the required number of credit units.

The number of credits acquired for certification are in total 120.

Source: Ethniko ke Kapodistriako Panepistimio Athinon, Pedagogiko Tmima Dimotikis Ekpedefsis, Odigos Spoudon Athens, January 1986.



APPENDIX IXUNIVERSITY OF PATRASPEDAGOGICAL DEPARTMENT FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS(Academic Year 1984-1985)PROGRAMME OF STUDIES1st SEMESTERHours  
per week

Compulsory:	(1) Greek language and literature	5
	(2) Introduction to psychology	3
	(3) Introduction to sociology	3
	(4) Children's drawings	2
Optional:	(1) Foreign language	4
	(2) Anthropology	3
	(3) Media studies	2

2nd SEMESTER

Compulsory:	(1) Introduction to pedagogy	3
	(2) Developmental psychology	4
	(3) Physical education	4
	(4) Children's literature	3
	(5) Methodology of writing essays	1
Optional:	(1) Foreign language II	4
	(2) Social psychology	3
	(3) Introduction to philosophy	3

3rd SEMESTER

Compulsory:	(1) History of pedagogical ideas and educational systems	3
	(2) Teaching and learning	3
	(3) Aesthetic education I - Theory	3
	(4) Music I - Theory	3
	(5) Physical education	4
<u>Optional:</u>	(1) Foreign language III	4
	(2) Psychology-Communication	5
	(3) Experimental psychology	2
	(4) Religion	2
	(5) Infant care	2

4th SEMESTER

Compulsory:	(1) Sociology of education	3
	(2) Theory of pre-school education	3
	(3) Research in social sciences and elements of statistics	4
	(4) Music for nurseries II	3
	(5) Teaching methodology in pre-school education I	5

/Cont...

4th SEMESTER (Cont.)

	<u>Hours per week</u>
Optional: (1) Foreign language	4
(2) Sexual education	2
(3) Comparative education	2

5th SEMESTER

Compulsory: (1) Teaching methodology in pre-school education II	5
(2) Philosophy of education	3
(3) Aesthetic education II. Practice	3
(4) Music for nursery class	3
(5) Psychology of individual differences	2
Optional: (1) Educational and social problems in modern Greece	2
(2) Developmental psychology II	3

6th SEMESTER

Compulsory: (1) The Greek educational system	3
(2) Psychopathology	3
(3) Aesthetic education. Practice.	3
(4) Music for nursery class	3
(5) Learning difficulties and special education	2
Optional: (1) Modern Greek literature	3
(2) Evaluation	2
(3) Introduction to psychology - group psychology	4
(4) Modern trends in children	2

7th SEMESTER

Compulsory: (1) Health and hygiene	3
(2) Methodology of teaching	2
(3) Physical education for nurseries III	4
(4) Aesthetic education for nursery class. Practice.	3
Optional: (1) Psychopathology	2

8th SEMESTER

Compulsory: (1) Environmental education	3
(2) Organisation and administration of education	2
Optional: (1) Personality of the teacher and his role	3

Finally, during the 8th Semester students must prepare themselves for a "Thesis" which is necessary for their certification.

Source: Panepistimio Patron, Pedagogiko Imima Nipiagogeon 1985.

APPENDIX XPEDAGOGICAL DEPARTMENT FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERSARISTOTELION UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI(Academic Year 1986-1987)1st SEMESTERTeaching hoursCompulsory (chosen)

(1)	Socialisation of the child	2
(2)	Developmental psychology	3
(3)	Psychopedagogics of teaching	5
(4)	Music I	2
(5)	Art I	2
(6)	Sociology	2
(7)	Physiology	2
(8)	Psychology of language	2

Optional

(1)	Education and Research - Methodology of monography I	2
(2)	Environmental - Ecology I	2
(3)	Mathematics of pre-school age I	2
(4)	Pre-school mathematical concepts	2
(5)	Music in special education	1
	Foreign language (introductory level)	-

2nd SEMESTERCompulsory (chosen)

(1)	Basic pedagogical aspects	5
(2)	Children with special needs	2
(3)	Children's literature I	2
(4)	Developmental psychology II	3
(5)	Language development and children	2
(6)	Social psychology I	2

/Cont...

<u>2nd SEMESTER (Cont.)</u>		<u>Teaching hours</u>
<u>Optional</u>		
(1)	Music II	2
(2)	Art II	2
(3)	Education and research - methodology of monography II	2
(4)	Teaching practice on the issue - "Children with special needs"	2
	Foreign language	-
<u>3rd SEMESTER</u>		
<u>Compulsory (chosen)</u>		
(1)	Psychopedagogics of teaching I	8
(2)	Music III	2
(3)	Art III	2
(4)	Children with special needs	2
(5)	Stereotypes and sex	1
(6)	Modern Greek language	2
<u>Optional</u>		
(1)	Sociology II	2
(2)	Didactics of physiognostical subjects	2
(3)	Teaching practice on the issue "Non sexistic education"	2
(4)	Social psychology II	2
(5)	Laboratory - Research	3
	Foreign language	3
<u>4th SEMESTER</u>		
<u>Compulsory (chosen)</u>		
(1)	Sociology - Ecology I	2
(2)	Pedagogics of teaching (teaching practice)	8
(3)	Education and intelligence	3
(4)	Music - pedagogical systems	2

/Cont...

<u>4th SEMESTER (Cont.)</u>		<u>Teaching hours</u>
(5)	Art IV	2
(6)	Psychology and reading	2
<u>Optional</u>		
(1)	English texts on the issue "Non sexist education"	2
(2)	Education in minority groups	2
(3)	Economy and education	2
(4)	Dramatics	2
(5)	Rhythmic	2
(6)	Laboratory - research	3
	Foreign language	3
<u>5th SEMESTER</u>		
<u>Compulsory (chosen)</u>		
(1)	History of Art	3
(2)	Modern Greek history	3
(3)	Social foundations of education	2
(4)	Philosophy of education	2
(5)	Didactical methodology	8
<u>Optional</u>		
(1)	Music	2
(2)	Art V	2
(3)	Systematical observation and evaluation of children	2
(4)	Laboratory - research	3
	Foreign language	3
<u>6th SEMESTER</u>		
<u>Compulsory (chosen)</u>		
(1)	History of Art	3
(2)	Modern history of Macedonia 1830-1912	3

/Cont...

<u>6th SEMESTER (Cont.)</u>		<u>Teaching hours</u>
(3)	Sociology of education	2
(4)	The development of pedagogics - Thoughts in Modern Greece	2
(5)	Didactical methodology - Teaching practice	8
<u>Optional</u>		
(1)	Children's literature II	2
(2)	Art VI	2
(3)	Music	2
(4)	Sociology III	2
(5)	Laboratory - research	3
	Foreign language	3

Source: Aristotelio Panepistimio Thessalonikis  
Pedagogiko tmima Nipiagogon  
 Thessaloniki, 1987.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Altbach, G.P., Comparative Higher Education, Research Trends and Bibliography, Mansell, London, 1979.
- Andreou, A., "H ekpedefsi ton daskalon ke Nipiagogon stin choras mas", article in, Sichrono Nepiagogio, ed. Dipticho, 1980.
- Averof, E., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 24 June 1982.
- Bakogiannis, P., Anatomia tis Hellinikis Politikis, Ed. Papazisi, Athens, 1977.
- Barnard, A., Greek Civilisation, London, 1970.
- Beis, I., "He epistimoniki erevna ke o 'nomos-plesio'", in Newspaper, Kathemerini, Athens, 6.1.1983.
- Benn, C., "Bloodless Revolution in Greece's Universities", The Times Higher Educational Supplement, 9 April 1982.
- Blais, A., "Power and Causality", Quality and Quantity, 8, p. 45 in Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1979.
- Blau, P.R., and Mayer, M.W., Bureaucracy in Modern Society, New York, Random House, 1967.
- Bliatkas, K., "Provlimata ke prooptikes gia ta Pedagogika tmimata: simperasmata apo tin imerida pou diorganose i didaskaliki omospondia Elladas gia tin politistiki ke ti morfotiki entaxi ton daskalon ke Nipiagogon" in Newspaper, Makedonia, 4.7.1987, Thessaloniki.
- Bliatkas, K., "Sti vouli itropologies gia ta anotata idrimata" in Newspaper, Macedonia, 3.8.1985
- Bliatkas, K., "Diastasi apopseon gia miosi arithmou isakteon se A.E.I." in Newspaper, Makedonia, 27.1.86.
- Bouzakis, S., "Neoelleniki Ekpedefsi" Cutenberg, Pedagogiki seira, Athens, 1986.
- Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol.1, and II., Unesco and IAU, Paris, 1965.
- Browne, B.J., and Skilbeck, N., "The Balance of Studies in Colleges of Education", in Goldy, M., Greenwald, D.J., and West, R., Curriculum Design, Open University, Croom Helm, London in association with the Open University Press, London, 1977.
- Castle, B.C., The Teacher, Oxford University Press, 1971.
- Chatzistefanidis, Th., Istoria tis Neoellenikis Ekpedefsiss (1821-1986), Papadimas, D., Athens, 1986.

- Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1979.
- Constitution of the Republic of Greece, Greek Embassy in London, Press and Information Office, July 1975, Article 16, paragraph 2.
- Coombs, S.F., "Who Participates in Educational Change - and How?" in King, E., Reorganisation Education: Managing and Participation for Change, SAGE Annual Review of Social and Educational Change, Vol.1, 1977, London.
- Cowen, R., "Aspects of Organisation, Finance and Administration of Teacher Education" in Teacher Education, Proceedings of the Comparative Education Society in Europe, Stockholm, 1971.
- Cramer, F.I. and Browne, S.G., in Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems and Education, New York, Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1965.
- Damanaki, M., Spokesman of KKE, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.
- Damanaki, M., Speech in the Newspaper, To Verma, 16 June 1982.
- Damanakis, M., "Pedagogika tminata: programma spoudon Ke Organosi" in Sychroni Ekpedefsi, 6th Year, Vol. 24, September, October, 1985, Athens.
- Derbisis, S., Istoria tis neoellinikis Ekpedefsis ke Sychrono Ekpedeftiko sistima, Thessaloniki, 1985.
- Dewey, J., How We Think, Heath, Boston, Mass., 1910.
- Dewey, J., in Holmes, B., The Reflective Man: Dewey, in Nash, P., The Educated Man: Studies in the History of Educational Thought, New York, 1965.
- Dewey, J., "My Pedagogic Creed" in Garford, E.A., John Dewey, Selected, Chicago, 1894.
- Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas, "Pos theloume ta pedagogika tminata" in Didaskaliko Vema, Athens, No. 944, November 1983.
- Didaskaliki Omospondia Hellados, (DOE), "48 ori apergia daskalon ke Nipiagogon" (20 and 21. 10.1980), in Sychrono Nipiagogeio, Ed. Vasdekis, November 1980, Athens.
- Dimaras, A., "The Movement for Reform: A Historical Perspective" in Comparative Education Review, Vol. 22, No.1, February, 1978.
- Dimas, A., A Metarithmisi pou den egine, A. Volume, ed. Ermes, Athens, 1983.



- Dimaras, A., "Greek Education: A Story of Frustrated Reform", in Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, Vol. VIII, 1981.
- DOE, "Diakirixi tis Didaskalikis Omospondias Ellados Pros tous gonis ke kidemones ton mathe ton ton Demotikon Scholion ke Nipiagogion olis tis horas" in Sichrono Nepiagogio, Vol.7, May-June 1980, No. 5-6, Ed. Vasdekis, Athens.
- DOE, "He Dynamiki tou Sindikalistikou mas Kinimatos" in Didaskaliko Vema, No. 940-950, July-August, 1983.
- Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Athens, 16.7.1982, Vol. 1st, No. 87, Nomos 1268, Article 6.
- Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tis Ellinikis Demokratias, Proedriko diatagma No. 319 in No. 116A, 7.9.1985, Athens, Article 7, paragraph 1.
- Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 21.5.1972, Vol. 1st, No. 237, Degree 343, Article 2.
- Efimeris tis Kiverniseos tou Vasiliou tis Ellados, Athens, 10.1.1973, Vol. 1st, No.2, Degree 7, Article 1.
- Eggleston, J.S., "Breaking with Urban Tradition brings Fresh Academic Hope", in Times Higher Educational Supplement, 4.2.83.
- Eliou, M., "Those Whom the Reform Forgot", in Comparative Education Review, 1978.
- Elliniki Demokratia, Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, O nomos 1268/82 gia tin domi ke litourgia ton anoteron Ekpedeftikon idrimaton, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1982.
- Elvin, L., "Comments on the Address given by Mr. D.H. Morrell", Educational Research, 5 (2), 1963.
- Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, "He Pedagogikes Akademies prepi na ginoun anoteres Scholes", in Newspaper, Vema, 8.11.80
- Ethniki Statistiki Ipiresia tis Ellados, Statistiki tis Ekpedefseos 1955-56, 1962-63, 1971-72, Athens.
- Ethniko statistiko kentro Ellados, Statistiki tis Ekpedefsiss Year 1978-79, Athens, 1982.
- Etzioni, A., The Semi-professions and their Organisation, New York, The Free Press, 1969.
- Exarchopoulos, N., Eisagogi is tin Pedagogikin, B. Volume, 5th edition, Athens, 1950.
- Farakos, G., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 18 June, 1982.

- Fragos, Ch., "Epikera themata pedeias", Gutenberg, Pedagogiki Seira, Athens, 1986.
- Fragos, C., "Ta ideadi, ta ousiodi ke ta stichiodi tis Pedei in Journal Prosanatolismi, June-July, 1976, Athens.
- Fragos, C., "Prolegomena gia to rolo ton Pedagogikon Epistimon sti ch'ra mas" in Debreuss, M., and Mialaret, G., Pedagogikes Epistemes, Diptycho, Vol.A, Athens, 1981.
- Fragos, C., Speech in the 54th General Assembly of Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas at Stadio Irini ke Filias, Athens, 21-26 June, 1985.
- Fragos, Ch., "He allages sto Elliniko Panepistimio" in Sychroni Ekpedefsi, Vol. 7, April-June 1982.
- Fragos, Ch., To problima tis Ekpedefsis ton daskalon, Report to the First Panhellenic Scientific Congress of the DOE on the subject of The Teacher Training Colleges, Athens, 9.3.1980.
- Fragoudaki, A., Ekpedefstiki Metarrithmisi ke filalefteroi dianooomenoi, Athens, Kedros, 1977.
- Fragoudaki, A., "Skephis gia ton rolo ke to ergo ton Ekpedefstikon" in Journal Sichroni Ekpedefsi, No. 27, March-April, 1986, Athens.
- Gavroglou, K., "Certain features of Higher Education in Greece and the failure of the attempts to Reform" in the Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, Vol. VIII, 1981.
- Gavroglou, K., "University Reform Laws in Greece: an historical overview", in CRE-Information, Geneva, 1986.
- Georgoulis, K., General Didactic, Athens, 1972.
- Gerou, T., "Ekpedefstiki politiki" (1975-1981), Athens, 1981,
- Giddens, A., "Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons", in Sociology, Vol. 2, No.3, Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1968.
- Gilbert, M., "The Modern Business Enterprise" in Clegg, S., The Theory of Power and Organisation, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1979.
- Gimeno, B.J., and Ibanez, R.M., The Education of Primary and Secondary School Teachers, An international comparative study, Unesco, Unesco Press, France, 1981.

- Glenos, D., O skopos tis Pedagogikis Akademias, Athens, 1924.
- Glenos, D., "I Krixi tou Demotikismou" in Eklektes Seledes, Vol.2, Athens, 1971.
- Goodings, R., Byram, M., and McPartland, H., Changing Priorities in Teacher Education, The British Comparative Education Society, 1982, London.
- Gouldner, A., The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology, Heinemann, London, 1970.
- Graham, D., "Greece Smartly Changes Pace and Direction" in Times Higher Educational Supplement, 9.4.82.
- Gregoriadou, K., Christianiki ithiki, Textbook for Sixth Forms, Ed. Organismos Ekdoseon Scholikon vivlion, 1976. Athens.
- Haberman, M., and Stinnett, T.M., Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, McCutcheon Publ., Corporation, California, U.S.A. 1973.
- Hall, K.R., Hans, N., Lauwerys, J., "The Social Position of Teachers", in The Yearbook of Education, 1953, London.
- Hans, N., Gerth, A. and Wright Mills, C., From Max Weber, Oxford University Press, New York, 1958.
- Herder, Megali Pedagogiki Enkiklopedia ton Ellinikon grammaton, Vol. 4, os, Athens, 1968.
- Holmes, B., "Organisation of Teacher Training" in The Yearbook of Education, 1963: Education and Training of Teachers, Evans Bros., London, 1963.
- Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in a Changing World", in The Yearbook of Education, 1963, London.
- Holmes, B., "The Politics of Teacher Education" in Teacher Education, Comparative Education Society in Europe, Proceedings of the Fifth General Meeting, Stockholm, 1971, The Society, Stockholm, 1971.
- Holmes, B., "The Future of Teacher Education in England and Wales: A Comparative View" in Education for Teaching, No. 85, Summer 1971.
- Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in England and Wales: A Comparative View" in Lomax, E.D., The Education of Teachers in Britain, Wiley, J., and Sons, London, 1973.
- Holmes, B., Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965.
- Holmes, B., "The Politics of Education - The Case of Greece" in Diversity and Unity in Education, G. Allen and Unwin, London, 1980.

Holmes, B., Some Considerations of Method in Comparative Education, Student Seminar Papers, Department of Comparative Education, University of London Institute of Education, 1975.

Holmes, B., "Models in Comparative Education" in Compare, Vol.11, No.2, 1981.

Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, University of London Institute of Education, Comparative Education Department, 1983.

Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, G. Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1981.

Holmes, B., "Universities, Higher Education and Society" in The World Yearbook of Education 1971/72, Evans Bros., London, 1971.

\*\*

Kaklamanis, A., Cheretismos Ypourgou Ethnikis Pe deias ke Thr skevmaton, Report to the International Pedagogical Conference of the Pedagogical Society of Greece on the subject, Education and In-Service Education of Teachers, Athens, 23,25, September 1983.

Kalteziotis, N., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.

Kandel, I., Evans, N., Subjes, A., Read, M., "The Reform of Education", in The Yearbook of Education, London, 1952, Evans Bros.

Kanelopoulos, P., Independent Spokesman in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.

Kappos, K., Speech in the Parliament, Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.

Kazamias, A., "The Education of Teachers: Elementary and Secondary in Greece", in European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 8, No.2, 1985.

"Kinitopiisis ton Katikon tis Florinis me etima ti litourgia Pedagogikou Tmimatos stin politous", in Newspaper, Thessaloniki, 26.3.1987.

Kokkotas, P., O rolos tis pedeias stin economiki anaptixi tis Hellados, Ed. S. Tounta, Athens, 1978.

Kontogianopoulos, V., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 16 June 1982.

Kontogiorgis, G., Omilia gia ti Metanomasia tis Pantiou se Panapistimio, in Ikonomikos Tachidromos No. 23, 11 June 1987, Athens.

Kosmopoulos, A., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes" in Newspaper, Vema, 25 July 1984, Athens.

- Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogikos viasmos" in Newspaper, Vema, 4 August, 1984.
- Kremmidas, B., Report in the round-table discussion organised by Sillogos Daskalon ke Nipiagogon Rethimnou Krates on the subject, "Ta pedagogika tmimata, Rethimno, 8.10.93, in Didaskaliko Vema, ed. Didaskaliki Hellados, No. 947, January 1984.
- Kremmidas, B., "Pedagogika tmimata ke spoudes" in Newspaper, Vema, 1 July 1984.
- Kiriazolpoulou-Valinaki, "Nipiagogiki", Blassi Brod., Athens, 1977.
- Lefas, Ch., Istoria tis Ekpedefsisis, Athens, 1942.
- Legg, R.K., Politics in Modern Greece, Stanford University Press, California, 1969.
- Lieberman, M., Education as a Profession, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1956.
- Lomax, D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, London, 1975. Wiley, J. and Sons.
- L.X. "Anamenonté nees exelixis stis Pedagogikes Scholes", in Newspaper, Makedonia, 11.2.1983.
- Lyrintzis, Ch., Between Socialism and Popularism: the Rise of Pan-Hellenik Socialist Movement, Ph.D. Thesis, London School of Economics, 1985, Chapter VI in Mouzelis, N., Paradosi ke allaqi stin Helliniki Politiki,
- Mallinson, V., Trends in Teacher Education, Report of a Conference held at the University of Reading, 12-15 September 1969, Comparative Education Society of Europe, British Section.
- Mallinson, V., The Western European Idea in Education, Pergamon Press, London, 1980.
- Manesis, A., "He exelixi ton politikon thesmon stin Hellada" in He Hellada se exelixi, ed. Exantas, Athens, 1986.
- Marklund, S., "Towards a New Teacher Professionalism" in Lomax, E.D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, Wiley, J., and Sons, London, 1975.
- Marrow, H.J., A History of Education in Antiquity, 1956.
- Marx, K. and Engels, F., The Communist Manifesto, Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York, 1955.
- Massialas, G.B., The Educational System of Greece, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1981.

- Mauridis, L., "Reform and Development of Tertiary Education in Greece", in Council of Europe, Reform and Development of Tertiary Education in Southern Europe, Strasbourg, 1981.
- Mavrogiorgos, G., "Scholia Ke apopsis", in Sychonony Ekpedefsi, Vol. 30, September-October, 1986.
- McLean, M. and Lauglo, J., "Introduction: Rationales for Decentralisation and a Perspective from Organisation Theory", in Lauglo, J., and McLean, M., The Control of Educational: International Perspectives on the Centralisation-Decentralisation Debate, University of London Institute of Education, 1985.
- Milonas, Th., H anaparagqi ton kinonikon taxeon meso ton scholikon mechanismon, Ed. Gregoris, Athens, 1982.
- Ministry of National Education and Cults, Directorate of European Committees, National Epyrdice Unit, The Education System in Greece, U.S.A., 1982.
- Moralis, S., "He sinthesi tou DEP ton Pedagogikon tmimaton", in D.A.S.K., I povathmizonte ta Pedagogika tmimata, in He selida ton parataxeon, Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949 March, 1984.
- Morrell, D., "The functions of the teacher in relation to Research and Development Work in the Area of the Curriculum and Examinations" in Educational Research, 5(2), 1963.
- Mouzelis, N., "Paradosi ke allagi stin Elliniki politiki" in He Hellada se exelixi, ed. Exandas, Athens, 1986.
- Myrdal, G., The American Dilemma, 20th Anniversary Edition, Harper and Row, 1962.
- Nea Demokratia, Ideologikes Arches, Katastatiko tis Neas Demokratias, Athens, 1986.
- Neave, G., "University systems in Europe: Greece", in CRE-Information, No. 77, 1st Quarter/1er Trimestre, Geneva, 1987.
- Nikolaidis, T., "Ekpedeftikis entinomies" in Newspaper, Vema, 5 July 1984.
- Noutsos, Ch., Ideologia ke Ekpedeftiki Politiki, Themelio, Athens, 1986.
- O.E.C.D., New Patterns of Teacher Education and Tasks: General Analysis, Paris, 1974.
- O.E.C.D., Review of National Bodies for Education: Greece, Paris, 1982.
- O.E.C.D., The Mediterranean Regional Project - Greece, Paris, 1965.

- Ogburn, F.W., On Culture and Social Change: Selected Papers, Chicago University Press, Chicago, 1964.
- Organismos Litourgon Mesis Ekpedefsis, Report from Proceedings 18 of General Assembly, Deltio, No. 53-54, September-October, 1983.
- Omada fititon tou Pedagogikou Tmimatos Dimotikis Ekpedefsis tou Panepistimiou Athinon, "Gia na archisi he sizitisi giro apo ta Pedagogika Tmimata" in Synchroni Ekpedefsi, Vol. 23, July-August, 1985, Athens.
- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Educational Policy and Planning: Educational Reform Policies in Greece, Paris, 1980.
- Palaiologos, G., Enkiklopedia Pyrsos, Athens, 1952.
- Panagiotopoulos, P., "He Krisi stin anotati P edeia pire ekriktikes diastasis" in Newspaper, Kathemerini, 1.1.85.
- Panellinio Socialistiko Kinema Daskalon, "Pedagogika Tmimata" in He selida ton parataxion, Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949, March, 1984.
- Panepistimio Athinon, Pedagogiko tmima tis Dimotikis Ekpedefsis, Programma spoudon scholiko etos 1985-86, Athens.
- Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima (PASOK), Diakirixi tis kivernitikis Politikis, 4.7.81, Athens.
- Panellinio Socialistiko Kinima (PASOK), Diakirixi tis 3is Septembriou, 1974.
- Papachristos, M., "He daskali ta scholia kehe mathites" in Newspaper, Vema, 13 July 1984, Athens.
- Papachristos, M., He dynamiki tou Sindikalistikou mas Kinimatos, Report to the 52nd Annual General Assembly of the DOE, Athens, 21-25 June 1983.
- Papandreou, A., "Greece: The University - Yesterday and Tomorrow" in Western European Education, Council of Europe, Spring, 1987, Vol. XIX, No.1.
- Papathemelis, St., "Anakinosi gia ta pedagogika tmimata" in Newspaper, Eleftherotipia, Athens, 2.3.1983.
- Papathemelis, S., "O rolos tou daskalou stin organositon programmaton spoudon" in newspaper, Makedonia Thessaloniki, Greece, 6.8.1984.
- Papathemelis, S., "To thema tis sinthesis tou D.E.P. ton Pedagogikon Tmimaton" in Didaskaliko Vema, No. 949, Athens, March, 1984.
- Paraskevopoulos, I., Markantonis, I, and Danasis-Afentakis, A., "To schedio mondello gia tis Panepistimiakes Scholes Litourgon Stichioudous Ekpedefseos", in Newspaper, Vema, 26.10.1980.

- Pareto, V., Sociological Writings, selected by S.E. Finer, Blackwell, Oxford, 1976.
- Parsons, T., "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organisation", in Halpin, A.W., Administrative Theory in Education, London, Collier-Mcmillan, 1958.
- Parsons, T., Structure and Process in Modern Societies, New York, Free Press, 1960.
- Parsons, T., "The School Class as a Social System", in Halsey, A.H., Floud, J., and Anderson, C.A., Education, Economy and Society, New York, Free Press, 1961.
- Partridge, P.H., "Some Notes on the Concept of Power", Political Studies, 11.3.1962.
- Parsons, T., Sociological Theory and Modern Society, Free Press, New York, 1967.
- Parsons, T., "On the Concept of Political Power", in Giddens, A., Power in the Recent Writings of Talcott Parsons, op.cit.
- Pesmatzoglou, I., Speech in the Newspaper To Vema, 16 June, 1982.
- Pesmatzoglou, S., "Some Economic Aspects of Education", in Journal of the Hellenic Diaspora, 1981
- Peterson, P., "An Overview of the Politics of Education in Post-War Europe", in Holmes, B., Final Report: A Cross-National and Inter-Disciplinary Analysis of Secondary Educational Change in England, France and Sweden, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U.S.A. 1970.
- Pirgiotakis, G., Archise sosta to Ekpedefitiko Sistema Epistimoniko Vewa, Athens, Vol. 2, Year 29. 1984.
- Polychronopoulos, P., To provlima tis Ekpedefsis ton Ekpedeftikon ke i riziki lisi tou, Athens, 1982.
- Polychronopoulos, P., Speech in the 54th General Assembly of Didaskaliki Omospondia Helladas at Stadio of Irinis ke Filias, Athens, 21-26 June 1985.
- Popper, K.R., The Poverty of Historicism, London, 1970.
- Popper, K.R., The Open Society and Its Enemies, Vol. I, London, 1980.
- Porpodas, K., "Ta panepistimiaka pedagogika tmimata ke epistimoniki taftotita ton neon daskalon" in Epistomoniko vema ton litourgontis demotikis Ekpedefsis, Vol.4, Year 28, June-July, August, 1983, Athens.
- Porpodas, C., "The Contribution of Educational Sciences to Primary Teacher Training in Greece", in European Journal of Teacher Education, Vol.8, No.2, 1985.



- Psarouda-Benaki, A., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 6 June 1982.
- Rallis, G., Speech in the Newspaper, Ellinikos Voras, 18 June, 1982.
- Reguzzoni, M., "European Innovations in Teachers' In-service Training" in Lomax, D., European Perspectives in Teacher Education, J. Wiley and Sons, Ltd., London, 1975.
- Renshaw, R., "The Objectives and Structure of the College Curriculum" in Tibble, W.J., The Future of Teacher Training, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1971.
- Ross, A., "The Development of Teacher Education in Colleges of Education" in Lomax, E.D., The Education of Teachers in Britain, Wiley, J. and Sons, London, 1973.
- Saphalis, K., Speech in the Parliament, 28 June 1982, Parliamentary Proceedings.
- School of Philosophy, University of Athens, "Hyponnema epi ton Kyvernetikon Metron peri tis Pe deias", (Memorandum on the Governmental Measures on Education), in E.E.F.S.P.A., Vol. 14, Athens, 1963-64.
- Sindesmos Kathigiton Pedagogikon Academion Ptichiouchon Panepistimion imedaepis "Protaseis qia anotates Pedagogikes scholes" in Newspaper, Vema, 8.11.1980.
- Soumelis, C., "Greece", in O.E.C.D., Individual Demand for Education, Paris, 1979.
- Spodek, B., Saracho, O., "The Preparation and Certification of Early Childhood Personnel", in Spodek, B., Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education, The Free Press, New York, 1982.
- Stathopoulos, M., "O k M. Stathopoulos apanta ston K.G. Kontogiorgi" in Ikonomikos Tachidromos, No. 24, 2 July 1987, Athens.
- Stathopoulos, M., "Structure and Functioning of Higher Education Institutions: the New Greek Law", in CRE-Information, Quarterly published by the CRE-organe de la CRE, Geneva, 1985.
- Stefanopoulos, K., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.
- Stinnett, M.T., "Teacher Education" in Review of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No. 3, June 1967.

- Tsolakis, G., Educational and Psychological Interactions, Department of Educational and Psychological Research, Lund University, 1981.
- Tsatsos, D., To sintagma Ke he anotati Pedeia, Speech in the Third Department of the Council of the State as Representative of the University of Thessaloniki, 3.2.1984, Athens.
- Taylor, W., Research and Reform in Teacher Education, Council of Europe, Windsor, 1978.
- UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, Paris, 1966.
- UNESCO/International Labour Organisation, Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers, Switzerland, 1984.
- Union of Students Pedagogical Academies, "Anichiti Epistoli pros ton Elleniko lao" 10.1.1975, in Sychrono Nipiagogeio, Vol. 2, Ed. Vasdekis, Athens, 1975.
- Varvitsiotis, J., Spokesman of New Democracy, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 17 June 1982.
- Verivakis, E., Spokesman of PASOK, in Parliamentary Proceedings, 28 June 1982.
- Vigopoulos, I., "He Ekpaidefsi ton daskalon" in Sychrono Nipiagogeio, Ed. Vasdekis, November 1980, Athens.
- Vigopoulos, E., "H Ekpedefsi ton daskalon stin Elladata teleftea peninta chronia" in Journal of Sychrono Nipiagogio, Athens, 1982.
- Vigopoulos, I., "Pedeia ke Ekpedefsi tou neou Ellinismou" in Debresse, M. and Mialaret, G., Pedagogikes Epistemes Vol. 8., Istoria tis Ekpedefsis, Athens, 1982.
- Weber, M., Essays in Sociology, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1948.
- Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, Glencoe, The Free Press of Glencoe, London, Collier-McMillan, 1967.
- Westwood, J.L., "The Role of the Teacher" in Educational Research Vol. 9, No.2, 1966-67.
- White, J.P., "The Concept of Curriculum Evaluation", in Coldy, M., Greenwald, J. and West, R., Curriculum Design, 1977.
- Wilson, B.R., "The Teacher's Role - A Sociological Analysis" in British Journal of Sociology, XIII, 1, 1962.
- Wolfgang, R., "Greece: Students Wait for Reform", article in Western European Education, Vol. XVIII, No.3, 1985.

- Woodring, P., "The Development of Teacher Education" in The Seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society, for the Study of Education, Chicago, 1975.
- Xohelis, P., "To Ekpedeftiko ergo os Kinonikos "rolos" Pedagogiki ke Ekpedefsi, Ed. Afi kiriakidi, Thessaloniki, 1984.
- Yates, A., Current Problems of Teacher Education, Report of a Meeting of International Experts, Unesco, Hamburg, 1970.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedias ke Thriskevmaton, Sinthesi tou DEP ton Pedagogikon tmimatou, telegraph dated 19.3.1984, to the Didaskaliki Omosmondia Helladas, Athens.
- Ypourgeo Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, "Epitropi programmaton pedagogikon tmimatou" No. 8 /383/6.4.83. Decision of the Minister of Education in Didaskaliko Vema, ed. Didaskaliki Omospondia Hellados, No. 937, June 1983, Vol.A.
- Ypourgeo Ethnikis Pedeias ke skevmaton, Nomos Plaisio: No. 1566/85, Organismos Ekdoseoi didaktikon, vivlion, Article 1, para. 1, Athens, 1985.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Kentro Ekpedeftikon meleton ke epimorphoseos, Dromi meta to Lykeio, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Athens, 1985.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton Panellinies exetaseis, Athens, 1979.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Nomos plaisio No. 1566/85, Organismos Ekdoseos didaktikon vivlion, Article 49, paragraph 8, Athens, 1965.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Gia tin idrissi tou A.M.I., written document No. /34853/11.10.1979, of the Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the "Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon", Athens.
- Ypourgio Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, written document No. 1181 Urgent of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the General Director of Pedagogical Academy of Lamia, President of the Enosis Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon, Nipiagogon, Athens, 1979.
- Ypourgeo Ethnikis Pedeias ke Thriskevmaton, Schetika me themata spoudon ton scholon sas, written document No. /932/ 9.3.1980, of the Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Religion, Mr. B. Kontogianopoulos to the General Director of the Pedagogical Academy of Lamia, President of the Kathigiton Pedagogikon Akademion ke scholon Nipiagogon, Athens. 1980

\*\*

Holmes, B., International Handbook of Education Systems,  
J. Wiley, and Sons, London, 1983.

Holmes, B., "Policy Formulation, Adoption and Implementation  
in Democratic Society" in McLean, M., and Lauglo, J.,  
The Control of Education, 1985.

Hondolidou, E., "Gia tin Ekpedefsi ton Ekpedeftikon" in  
Sychrony Ekpedefsi, Vol. 30, September-October, 1986.

Howis, G., "The Teacher in Classical Greece and Rome", in  
The Yearbook of Education: The Education and Training  
of Teachers, University of London Institute of  
Education, 1963.

Hoyle, E., The Role of the Teacher, Department of Education,  
University of Manchester, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd.,  
London, 1969.

Jarman, L.T., "Landmarks in the History of Education",  
English Education as Part of the European Tradition,  
Ed. by W. Clowes and Sons, Ltd., London, Great Britain,  
1966.

